The Community, Policy Making, and Educational Quality

Community influence and participation
in policy making for educational quality

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I certify that this thesis does not contain material which has been accepted for the award of any other higher degree or graduate diploma in any tertiary institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis does not contain material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Sheila Given

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Abstract

In this study of school governance, the problem for investigation is seen to lie in the presumption that formal collaboration of local laypersons with professional educators is an effective way to administer learning institutions. The purposes of this research are to discern the potential of community participation in policy making and to report on the possible influence that decisions made by governing bodies may exert on the quality of education.

Against a background where administrative decisions about schooling appear increasingly to be devolved to communities, the foreground issue is the present policy making practice of school-site government. Initially, investigation into a perceived trend towards decentralised administration was undertaken in countries which share a cultural heritage with Australia. To gain an understanding of the patterns, processes, and politics of an alleged devolutionary trend presently operating in, or envisaged for, some widely dispersed populations, inquiries in New Zealand, Canada, the United States, England, Ireland, and Scotland were undertaken.

The international perspective gained at that level led to identification of major factors in decentralised educational administration. Further observation proceeded in three Australian States - Victoria, New South Wales, and Tasmania - before bringing key issues for participatory governance into sharper focus through case studies in the locality of Hobart, Tasmania. Participant observation of administrative performance, procedures, and policies in three learning institutions is used to perceive the possible impact of community participation in governing bodies.

Findings derived from the three levels of inquiry indicate the capability of a coalition of professional educators and 'amateur' administrators to govern a school, provided that certain critical pre-conditions are met. The capacity of policy eventuating from collective decision making to enhance educational quality is evident, but it is dependent on clarity in defining the 'desired quality' aspired to, whether by a state, a region or an individual institution. The degree of empowerment underlying administrative procedures, and the policy-for-policy-making on site, are found to be important if participatory governance of schools is to have maximum influence.

Maintenance of some centralised control is not seen to be obviated by the progressive devolutionary trend in educational administration. Participation of local communities in formally making decisions for particular institutions is demonstrated as being supportive and responsive to teaching and learning. This can be achieved in a proximate and personal way that is unavailable to distant, centralised, bureaucratic authority. Crucial to a collaborative relationship between the teaching profession and the laity is recognition of differentiated expertise and experience required for the task of school administration as distinct from the actual provision for learning. Effective communication and interaction between personnel from the internal and the immediate external environments of a school are found to contribute to fulfilment of the potential which a local community has to enhance educational quality though policy making.

Table of Contents

List of Appendices

List of Figures

List of Tables

SECTION 1. Research into decentralisation and devolution

Chapter 1

Introduction

This is a study of school governance. It is about the impact that local communities have had, are having, or could have in making decisions which affect the education of their young people. It is concerned with effective policy making by governing bodies, effectiveness being indicated by quality of educational outcomes. The intention of the research undertaken for the study has been to discern the potential of community participation in school-site administration and to gauge the influence policy decisions have on school outcomes. The general hypothesis for the study is that a formal coalition of professional educators and local laypersons make decisions that enhance educational quality in learning institutions. This first chapter gives an overview of the study.

Outline of the study

While the administration of schools is a central focus of the study, the underlying issue is how learning, teaching and leadership are supported by school governance. The methodology that has been planned to investigate the problem initially seeks international and Australian perspectives on decentralised administration and devolved decision making. Observations of patterns, processes and politics in widely dispersed populations are recorded and analysed. Understanding of major factors has been gained from preliminary observations. At the same time, a model depicting educational quality in the context of self-governing schools is built up to identify constituents of a school environment. A governing body is shown to occupy an important, though external, position in such an environment.

The key issues that emerge from the initial investigation, together with the components of the contextual model, have provided criteria for participant observation of governing bodies. Three case studies portray variations in school-site government. Analysis of performance, procedures and policies has led to conclusions as to the efficacy, efficiency, and effectiveness in those cases. The outcomes of the study suggest the capability of participatory governance to perform the administrative task of school-site government and the capacity of policies to attain enhanced educational quality in a school. If school governance is to achieve its purposes, some essential preconditions are recommended for it to occur. From the insights of the study, a paradigm for participatory governance is postulated.

Purpose of the study

There are four specific purposes for this study. The first is to ascertain the extent of decentralisation of educational administration and devolved decision making. The second is to gain insight into the ways that school governing bodies may be expected to operate. The third purpose is to discern the influence collective decision making has on the quality of education. Lastly, an interpretation of educational quality is sought in the context of a total school environment.

It is important to state at the outset that the financial management aspect of school administration is not emphasised in this study. While commitment to cost effectiveness is a responsibility for which every governing body must be accountable, it is the level of community participation, the extent of decision making, and the indicators of broad educational outcomes from it, which are the subjects of the inquiry.

Policy making by a local community can denote a change in the personnel making formal decisions. Policies adopted by a coalition of professional educators and laypersons may vary from previous policies formulated exclusively by central officialdom. It should be noted that, while local communities' participation in policy making is normally considered to derive from devolution of authority or responsibility, this need not always be the case. A central authority may grant local school communities the power to formulate and institutionalise their own policies without addressing the range of implications concerning decentralisation. This is discussed on page 7. Distinctions between 'participation' and 'involvement' in policy making are indicated on page 9.

Hence the investigation is intended to cover the changes brought about by decentralisation and devolution as well as to explore that which does not change in educational administration. In view of the conservative nature of education, which Hodgkinson (1991:30) acknowledges as having "periodic waves of radical reaction", this thesis recognises Hodgkinson's contention that structural arrangements "to accomplish educational ends are consistently stable and far from infinite in variety". It is precisely because education "and all its organizational manifestations would seem to be one of the grand permanences of the human condition" (Hodgkinson, 1991:30), that an underlying purpose of this study pursues the philosophical rather than the scientific aspects of administration. Even as the practicalities are investigated during this research, and in the same way that T.B. Greenfield signifies in his foreword to the work of Hodgkinson (1991:3), the aim is to seek "the truth of the realities described".

The "human condition" of participatory governance in learning institutions is accentuated throughout this study; more reliance is placed on "what constitutes justice in the ordering of human affairs and what constitutes honor in administrative action", that theme Greenfield (1991:3) finds in Hodgkinson's work, than on "the scientific management of the modern era". The study is concerned with the continuity of educational administration although recognising new developments in it.

The fourth purpose interwoven into decentralisation and devolution issues is to give a clearer definition of educational quality. Although a definition is difficult to make, it is

persistently sought as this study proceeds. Educational quality is subject to more detailed scrutiny at the local level in the case studies. The intention has been that the findings derived from those cases might be expected to speak for a wider educational scene. Nonetheless, the study does not exhaustively cover that scene. Despite using the non-government system as one model of school administration, the large Catholic sector with its particular value orientation, is not investigated. By identifying outcomes that appear to be derived directly from decisions made by some governing bodies in the public and independent systems, future research may be stimulated in a field that does not appear to have been over-traversed.

Description of the problem

Legislators and bureaucrats in widespread locations seem to be accelerating decentralisation in educational administration. However, differences of opinion can be detected on the likelihood that increased participation by a wider range of decision makers is an effective method of school-site government. Thus a problem presented itself for research.

Webb (1961:226) gives three fundamentals as forming the basis for "good problems". Two of these concern the researcher: knowledge and dissatisfaction. The third concerns a problem's generalisability. As regards knowledge, Webb (1961:226) states that there is "very general agreement that one can only work effectively in an area when he has a thorough understanding of the general area of concern". As for dissatisfaction, perhaps better termed scepticism, negativism, or even iconoclasm, Webb advised that any significant research problem is a creative act which requires the presence of a "healthy opposition" to mere reconstruction of the theories of others. Findings from the investigation of problems require generalisability, that "extensity" to which Webb (1961:227) refers in advising "the extent to which our variables are unique and rare in contrast to universal and common largely determines the extent to which the findings are likely to be considered trivial or tremendous in their implications". The problem of this study appears to meet all three of Webb's stipulated criteria, namely knowledge, dissatisfaction, and generalisability.

The practice of school governance, as presently devolved by government instrumentalities to local communities, is not found to have an extensive research literature. Nor, from the writer's perception of its practice, does it have proven efficacy or a highly respected profile in public systems. While the former may be a local idiosyncrasy, the latter seems to be symptomatic of a more general lack of acceptance of the potential which local communities have, or could have, to substantially improve the quality of education by participating in school governance. This is rather puzzling considering the democratic changes which have been wrought in other public services. For instance, radical changes have occurred in processes in labour wards and maternity hospitals which are attributed to the Childbirth Education Movement, established by mothers. Similar examples can be found in social welfare policy as a result of movements under Clients' Rights. Community

participation in town planning is a case in point, citizen advocacy in legal matters is yet another. At the global level of environment and development, Brundtland (1987:38) gives as an imperative "promote local participation in decision making". Yet professional educators' notions of lay participation in public education systems seem to have a pervasive air of suspicion and deprecation. If this is so, why?

Personal experience in the non-government system of apparently effective self-governing schools led to querying whether this model is appropriate for the generalisability that Webb (1961) advocates. How applicable is that model when the relative merits of education systems to affect educational quality is debatable? This topic is oft-discussed in communities who reserve the right to choose between one or other system for the schooling of their progeny or who argue the invidiousness of private versus public provision. It is also the subject of research (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987). Findings indicate that "social capital" (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987) and socio-economic status (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Hallinger & Murphy, 1989; Chrispeels & Pollack, 1990) have significance for schooling outcomes.

While investigations into this study's problem are expected to contribute specific findings on the principles and practice of school governance, both public and private, a principal intention is to follow the advice of Webb (1961:227) and "look for the forest beyond the tree ... [and] learn as much as we can, believe in new ways, seek as great extensity in our variables as we can". This advice sets the course for fieldwork to determine factors which could be "universal and common" in administration of education.

Literature on theory and evidence of efficient practice in self-government of schools appear to be fairly scant. School governance is a "relatively new concept in educational research and analysis" which rarely appeared in literature before the 1970s (Mitchell, 1982:703). Aspects of governance that Mitchell (1982) explored are those concerned with remote control of school operations by means of regulatory policies, the establishment of educational goals and objectives, and the exercise of political and administrative authority. This clearly identifies schools as political institutions, the administrative function of which is formulation of policy. Mitchell (1982) quotes the symbolically significant slogans which were the trigger for school policy issues emergent in the late 1960s in America; "equal opportunity", "improving student achievement", "participation in policy making" to which, in Australia, Hughes (1977) adds "devolution from the centre". He notes the Karmel Report's (1973) concept "quality of education". Macpherson (1989b:3) quotes the New Zealand Picot Report (1988) slogan "Bad System, Good People" while Beare (1988:251) writes of "corporate management" of the public system. He quotes Naisbitt & Aburdene's (1986) "quality first, costs second" (Beare, 1988:252). These may be only catchphrases, but they indicate deepening public concern about autocratic patronage by

professionals in educational administration, particularly as opposed to greater collaboration with the lay community.

Since decentralisation has become an educational issue, legislation and major reports in countries comparable to Australia have identified reforms required in the public system. These indications of a consensus towards increased community involvement in decision making are evident in diverse places. Consequent on this, inquiry and collection of evidence to substantiate the alleged trend was undertaken for this study in countries sharing Australia's heritage, namely, New Zealand, the United States, Canada, England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Within Australian states there have been variations on the theme of decentralised administration. In Tasmania, recommendations for community participation have been made in major reports (Hughes, 1968; TEND, 1978; Cresap, 1990). In a Departmental policy statement, *Secondary Education: The Future* (1987:28), it is stated that "teachers and educators at all levels in the education system should consult and work with students, parents and community representatives". This has been tempered in a follow-up statement, *Our Children; The Future* (1991:21), by noting the difference "partnership with parents" makes to student achievement. However, recognition is given to the present "different paradigm of quality schooling ... [in which] the community strives constantly to help attain worthwhile outcomes for children". However, participation remains unmentioned. Since the Cresap Report was issued, ways of involving communities in Tasmanian schools are gradually being articulated in Departmental guidelines (1992). These are still at an interim stage and may not be enacted by the incoming Liberal government.

In Victoria, legislation was introduced in 1984 sanctioning School Councils' participation in the selection of principals and deputy principals in post-primary schools. In 1985, the State Board of Education proposed a review of School Council involvement in the local selection of administrators for primary schools (Chapman, 1985).

In New South Wales, revitalising the educational system (Scott, 1989a) and building a more responsive public system (Scott, 1990a) were planned reforms. Legislation to implement restructuring followed (1990). Caldwell & Spinks (1992:15) regard Scott's reviews as being "the catalyst for action" in that State.

Earlier, the reports of Currie (1967) and Hughes (1973) led to sweeping changes in school administration in the Australian Capital Territory. Reforms included Currie's recommending establishment of free schools with a large measure of independence in which "participation is a vital element" (Hughes, 1981:140), and the setting up of the ACT Schools Authority following the Hughes Report (1973). The guiding principles of this new Authority "indicated its intention to devolve major decisions with respect to curriculum, staffing and finance to schools, to be managed by representative individual school boards" (Hughes, 1981:143).

Other Australian States made different arrangements for administration of their schools. At the Federal level, the Karmel Report (1973) strongly advocated participation by communities in schooling.

In New Zealand, the Picot Report (1988), and legislation to implement its proposals, has resulted in a model of decision making devolved close to the point of implementation.

Education Acts in England (1980,1986,1988), reports (Plowden, 1967; Taylor, 1977) and events such as the Parents' Charter (1974) or the 'Great Debate' sparked by Prime Minister Callaghan's Ruskin Speech (1976), echo similar educational and legislative milestones in Australia and New Zealand.

The United States has comparable examples: the Coleman Report (1966), the Bundy Report (1968), *A Nation at Risk* (1983), and items of State legislation that bear out the international devolutionary trend.

Context of devolved decision making

During the second half of the twentieth century, schooling has come under increasingly critical scrutiny. Previously, educational administration and the quality of education tended to be largely unquestioned by the public. Even in democratic and developed countries, acquiescence to authoritarian and directive methods of management was taken to be as normal as was acceptance that the teaching and learning experienced in educational institutions should go virtually unchallenged (Baron, 1981:19; Halsey, 1986:157).

Gradually, public opinion changed. Centralised systems began to lose favour, quality became a topic of intense debate, participation in affairs of social consequence was demanded, and outcomes were more closely evaluated. Although the seeds of this shift in perceptions of education were sown in the early 1960s, their growth and development have not progressed in a straightforward manner. Even as the last decade of the century is reached, opportunities for meaningful participation by individuals or groups in making those decisions which critically affect children's schooling is still a distance from achieving fruition. This situation exists despite expressions of continuing dissatisfaction with educational outcomes and community pressure for participation in policy making in schools (Becher & Maclure, 1978:24; Hughes *et al.*, 1985:425; Sallis, 1988:6).

The major hypothesis indicated in the title of this study derives from the writer's experience of school administration, particularly in the non-government system. In most schools in that system, governing bodies composed of lay and professional community representatives undertake ultimate responsibility for organisational management in individual schools. The continued viability of these schools is conditional on proven accountability to meet criteria acceptable to the particular community's aspirations for educational quality. In this study, comparisons are made between the functions of governance in non-government and government schools.

Late in this century, it appears that many public systems of education have begun to decentralise policy making from a central bureaucracy to regions or even to individual schools. This devolutionary trend in decision making appears to be gathering momentum in widespread locations. Increasingly, laypersons in school communities are being empowered to make policy for public learning institutions in which they are stakeholders. Yet this is not always found to be an effective process. In a case study of parental power and professional control in the city of Sheffield, an English Local Education Authority which had played a leading part in the national movement to democratise school management, Bacon (1976:579) found that:

> the presence of parents and other lay representatives simply gives an illusion of local participation in the decision-making process. This may serve to strengthen the public's confidence in the legitimacy of the policies currently being pursued within the school system. However, its latent function is to strengthen the position of those administrative-political elites ultimately responsible for taking the key decisions about goals of contemporary education. Thus, paradoxically, while this type of reform may at first impression appear to be both resonant with democratic values and to facilitate a new type of public accountability to client groups, ultimately it simply serves to reinforce authority and power of the leaders of the educational interest, and in this way further facilitates their claims upon the wider society's resources.

Clearly, community participation proved to be problematic. Bacon (1976) indicated a possible power struggle between professionals and amateurs implicated in decentralised administration and devolved decision making. Is this still the case?

Investigation of the problem can be approached from several standpoints - philosophical, psychological, sociological, ethnographical - but implicit in it is the question of values espoused by either a system, a community, or a participant in governance. Administration being the underlying theme, Hodgkinson (1983:2) proposes that "administration is philosophy-in-action". A taxonomy of administrative process devised by Hodgkinson (1981:145) has proved helpful in approaching the problem for it emphasises distinctive realms for policy making and policy implementation. A value paradigm (Hodgkinson, 1983:38) is similarly useful for reflecting characteristics of people involved in social processes such as school governance.

A preliminary search indicated that the functions of school-site government had not attracted many researchers. Consequently, the phenomenon of administration by way of participatory governance receives particular attention during this study. The present writer has lengthy acquaintance with school-site government during many years of teaching in the non-government system. Subsequent and current membership of an independent school's Board of Governors, together with membership of a State Secondary College Council and a Technical and Further Education College Council in Hobart, Tasmania, have broadened and personalised a view of governing bodies. This position has stimulated investigation into the

efficacy of such bodies. The collaboration of participants in governance and the breadth of expertise necessary to make effective policy seems to call for experiences of a broader nature than professional educators alone can supply. Thus a personal perspective on policy making and policy makers in both government and non-government institutions has isolated a research problem that appears to be of contemporary interest. In turn, this has stimulated investigation to obtain an informed overview of the possibilities latent in professional and local community participants to influence educational quality.

Information to be collected and analysed

Due to the broad nature of the problem, it was anticipated that considerable information would be collected and that analyses concurrent with it would require time for checking, cross-referencing, display, and reflection. The significance of what specific information was to be collected and analysed could not be comprehensively predicted before its collection, otherwise there would not have been a "good problem" for research, as Webb (1961) advocates. The questions would have been answered by others already. However, a few studies of decentralisation and school-site governance do indicate some important factors. A Tasmanian study (Wenn, 1985), in the form of an interim analysis of the State Government's policy on school councils, identified an argument as to whether or not community participation should be formal or informal. It also points to principals' cynicism towards the potential value of a school council.

Elsewhere, the work of Bunday (1984) on the interaction between institutional goals, structures and procedures and the response of staff in eight British and eight Western Australian Schools is relevant to the degree that its findings show the vital role of leadership and of teachers' participation in decision making. Such a study tends to emphasise professional grip on educational administration.

Studies of the work of school councils in public systems in Victoria (McKinnon, 1980, Hare, 1986), and in South Australia (Probert, 1984) illustrate the diversity, even within one country, of governing bodies. The nature of schools under the aegis of religious bodies was examined in Victoria by Hansen (1971) and McMahon (1981) and, in New South Wales, by Braga (1984). A view that values, beliefs and ideologies might affect governance is reinforced by these studies.

Research in three Australian States into the effects of the devolution of curriculum decision making (Sturman, 1989) did not find that community participation directly influences curricular matters in schools. This has been corroborated by research into school councils in Scotland (Macbeth *et al.*, 1980) which determined that less than one percent of council business concerned the curriculum. Again, a study in New Zealand by Barrington & Marshall (1975) indicated that council meetings centred mostly on "the nuts and bolts issues, grounds, buildings, and finance and an almost total absence of any discussion relating to the

curriculum or aspects of pupil welfare in the pastoral sense" (cited in Baron, 1981:167). If the potential of governing bodies is to be discerned, information on the actual content of their business was obviously required during research for this study.

Definition of terms

As the 'local community' is the focus of this study, a clear definition is required of what this conveys. The intention is not to isolate actual geographical boundaries to a section of society but to incorporate the clientele of an institution and other stakeholders. Obviously, the students' parents immediately come to mind, but parent participation is too restricted a view of community for this study. Rather, the community is seen to include all the stakeholders in a school: parents, students, teachers, non-teaching staff, local educationists, laypersons who have a present or former relationship with the institution, and those local business and commercial employers who may be interested and available to participate. The formal participation of representatives of the community on governing bodies is the critical issue.

'Participation' entails having a genuine share in something in conjunction with others. Its use throughout this study is distinct from 'involvement' with which it is often regarded as synonymous. Beare (1987:2) uses a sporting metaphor. Participation, he suggests, is playing the game whereas involvement is being a spectator on the sidelines. This definition is useful for indicating the participant role of the local community in making decisions as formal policies for their school. Likewise, 'potential' suggests possible effectiveness in performing this role and implies latent capability. In the general hypothesis of this study, potential may be viewed as analogous with its usage in terms of electricity. Electric potential is the work performed when unit charge transfers from one to another separate body. This analogy draws attention to the powerful changes implicit in transferring educational administration from exclusively professional or bureaucratic control to units of local participation at individual school sites.

Variations in usage of terms from country to country tend to create confusion. The titles private, independent, or church schools are misnomers to some degree. A more precise and comprehensive designation is considered to be non-government schools. To add to confusion, government or state schools are often called 'public schools'. Ambiguity arises because the term 'Public Schools' also refers to the system comprising what Beare (1988:249) describes as "the famous private schools like Eton and Harrow or their Australian counterparts such as St. Peters College, Geelong Grammar, Scotch College (in any city), Wesley". Coleman *et al.* (1987) provided a sociological account of the differences between public and private, especially Catholic schools in America.

The term 'school' is used throughout the study to indicate "an institution for educating children or giving instruction of a more elementary or technical kind than that

given at universities" (McIntosh, 1963:1126). This definition is sufficiently broad to include an institute for vocational training or a senior secondary college. The title 'college' is often used by large public schools or as a somewhat pretentious name for non-government schools. 'Learning institution' has been used interchangeably with 'school' in this study.

The Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC) descriptor of school governance first appeared in 1966 as "the policy-making, objective setting, and exercise of authority in an organisation, institution, or agency includes administrative or management functions to the extent that they relate to the execution of policy and authority". While there is no disagreement with that description being applied to school-site government, what is in contention in this study is the form of school governance in which the executives of policy and authority are the local community as represented by professional and lay participants in it. That form of school-site government is termed 'participatory governance' throughout this study.

At the apex of the administrative pyramid in each school in the non-government system is a 'governing body' variously entitled board of governors, committee of management, trustees or council. Whatever its nomenclature, Hansen (1971:93) affirms that "the single body responsible for the efficient functioning of a school is its council".

In public systems in many countries an administrative body for individual schools features in the pattern of decentralisation of educational administration. But is participatory governance what is envisaged? Furthermore, is it an administrative or managerial function? The terms, 'administration' and 'management', are somewhat ambiguous. The devolutionary trend shows a pattern of government schools organised in a "self managing" mode (Caldwell & Spinks, 1988). Shipman (1990:vi) finds that "management is more than administration". Hodgkinson (1983) indicated that administration refers to the work of a policy making group which differs from that of a policy implementation group. Various locations appear to lend different weight to the labels. Although a somewhat confusing situation, distinction between the two is necessary within this study. Hence, the executive function of policy making by local community participants is viewed as administration, with the function being performed by a governing body. The degree to which school administration is self-governing is expected to influence outcomes through the policies adopted.

Among other possible anomalous terms within the study are references to 'professionals' and 'laity'. Although 'lay' is occasionally used to denote non-clerical persons where this study discusses learning institutions managed by churches, the terms layperson/s or laity, generally denote non-professional involvement in a particular institution's governance. This does not, however, indicate that these persons are necessarily without professional qualification. It may well be that they are experts or professionals in some field, possibly in education itself. However, in the context of school-site administration,

'laity' refers to those other than the professional educators employed within a particular institution.

The phrase 'quality of education' has been identified already as imprecise. It is intended to convey the concept of effectiveness and achievement aimed for in an institution. Analysis of the data collected provides a more precise definition of the term.

The research hypotheses and questions

The general hypothesis of the study is that the local community has the potential, through participation in policy making, to influence the quality of education in institutions. Supposition is implied by using the word 'potential'. A number of subsidiary hypotheses speculate on the nature of this supposition; that decentralisation of educational administration is widespread and accelerating; that there is a devolutionary trend in decision making; that participatory governance can enhance educational quality; that school-site government has particular characteristics; that influential policies eventuate. These hypotheses arise from knowledge gained from theory and practical experience. They give rise to questions that can be posed for the actual research of this study. The following list of five related hypotheses and questions (Table 1) is designed as a sequence of associated conjectures, paired and labelled as H1Q1 - H5Q5. Investigation of the study's problem revolves around them.

Table 1. **Research hypotheses and questions**

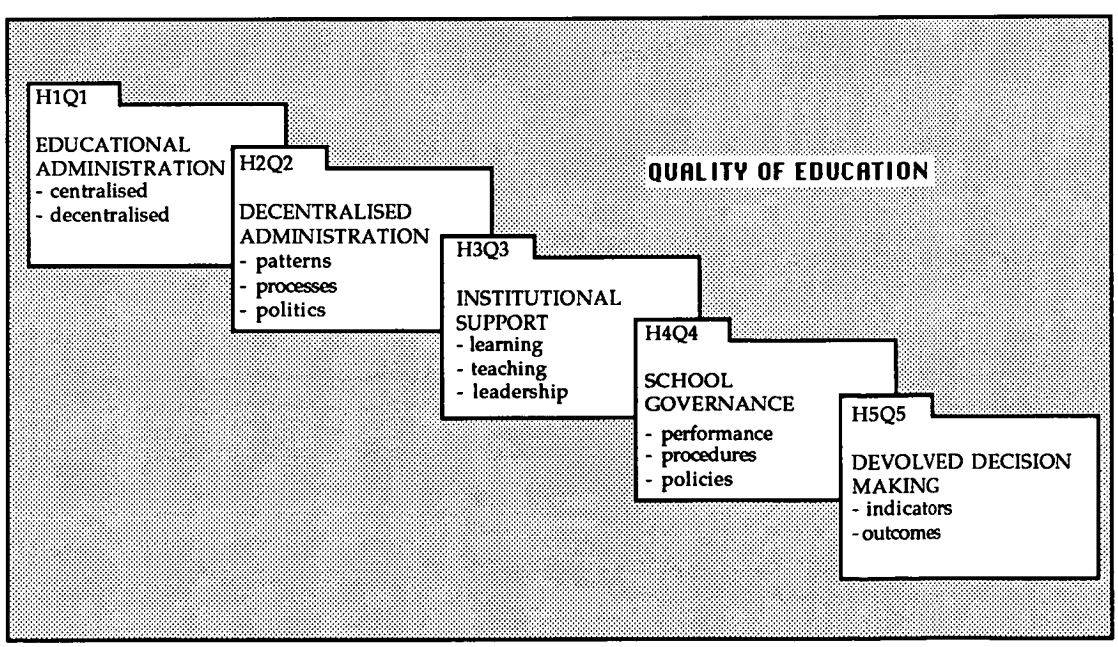
Hypothesis	Question
H 1. A trend in the educational administration of schools to decentralise from central authority to local community governance is widespread and accelerating.	Q 1. To what extent is the educational administration of schools being decentralised?
H 2. An intention of decentralisation that professional educators and lay persons will collectively make policy for school-site government is capable of realisation.	Q 2. What are the major observable factors in the decentralisation of educational administration to school-site government?
H 3. Administration by school-site governance can contribute positively to the quality of education in a learning institution.	Q 3. How can school-site governance contribute to enhancing quality in a learning institution?
H 4. Participants' attributes and administrative procedures determine beneficial policy outcomes for self-governing institutions.	Q 4. To what extent do participants' attributes and administrative procedures contribute to school governors' performance?
H 5. Policy formulated by local community participants in governance positively influences the quality of educational outcomes.	Q 5. What indications can be given that decisions made by participatory governance influence the quality of educational outcomes?

A framework for studying school governance

The five pairs of hypotheses and research questions indicate the elements of the study. Each pair is aligned to a discrete stage envisaged for the inquiry. Yet, in the interest of this study's coherence, the factors, personnel, settings, and theoretical constructs are subsumed in a conceptual framework designed for this study (Figure 1). Five stages of a devolutionary process in decision making are depicted as interlinked in this framework. They are shown against a background concept of quality of education. Aligned to each stage are the five pairs of hypotheses and research questions (H1Q1 - H5Q5). The five stages are:

- inquiry into decentralised educational administration generally;
- investigation of the patterns, processes, and politics of decentralisation in particular;
- the institutional support governance is envisaged to give to learning, teaching and leadership;
- the actual performance, procedures and policies of governing bodies in schools; and
- indicators of the outcomes which may result from devolved decision making.

Figure 1. **A conceptual framework for a school governance study**



Significance of the study

This study may have import in that there appears to be a paucity of research into the practice of school governance even as a widespread devolutionary trend in educational administration is reported and appears to be gathering momentum. As Baron (1981:279) comments on this "general movement to promote greater public and teacher involvement in decision making in schools and school systems", he notes that "members of the public, teachers and parents fulfil subtly different roles from those hitherto ascribed to them". Yet, the potential that school-site administration may have to influence educational quality is arguable. In this research, discernment of major factors implicated in decentralisation, both internationally and nationally, will be interpreted as key issues by which to gauge samples of current practice. Generalisability is sought for the findings of the study through the methodology planned for this investigation. A broad scene is surveyed before concentrating on samples of governance on three sites. That focus is expected to demonstrate characteristics capable of transferability.

Inquiry includes the feasibility of traditional non-government school governance being useful as a working model for more extensive use in other school systems. This has particular significance at this time when there is an apparent trend for public systems to simulate non-government schools' administration. One of the case studies presents the opportunity to assess how efficiently and effectively this may be done. Governing bodies have operated, almost without exception, in non-government schools since their foundations. Many have a long history. They have been in existence through that social period characterised by paternalism and authoritarianism. The management techniques employed may not have been particularly democratic; policy-making may have been reactive rather than proactive. The definition of democracy by Hughes *et al.* (1985:414) "as a way of getting things done, a way of arriving at decisions, and, by its very nature has 'accountability' built in, at least that is the theory" seems appropriate here. For public services such as provision of schooling, Baron (1981:7) reinforces that definition with a "commonsense use" of the term which "implies that the right and power to make decisions in public matters does not reside in a single individual or a group or class of individuals, but in each and every citizen". For these reasons, the non-government model may not be one to be emulated when local communities attempt democratic and productive decision making for their particular state school at this time. Therefore, other models will also be examined.

A factor to be noted about the efficiency of the model of non-government administration is that it closely resembles the commercial/industrial one of 'supply and demand'. If a commercial organisation is not producing an acceptable product, the business ceases to operate. In this instance, the school closes. Non-government education, as provided by its individual institutions, is a business like any other. The administration of each school

by its governing body is subject to that ultimate form of accountability: will the consumer buy the product? This form of market force may not be all that acceptable as a rationale for devolving to the consumer the responsibility for decision making when the supply is that of education for the young, and the product is the quality of that education. But it can be seen that the process of delivering education, that transfer of the culture of a society from one generation to the next, is analogous to supplying any other societal requirement or service. Schooling takes place in the social context which now seems to demand increased participation by consumers and accountability for outcomes. It is difficult to see how education could avoid acquiescence with the prevailing trend for local community participation in the administrative function of policy making, or for greater accountability from the policy makers.

Presently, the politics of education strongly indicate that these commercial aspects prevail in public educational administration. "Economic rationalism" (Rae, 1990:5) and "the privatisation syndrome" (Beare, 1991:21) are epithets applied to the current restructuring of education. The cynicism expressed by Pope (cited in Given, 1990:211) that "in times of stringency and cutbacks . . . [governments] displace the responsibility for where to cut to individual schools" could lead to a conclusion that decentralisation is merely financial expediency. It may be significant that, since 1987, the Australian government ministry responsible for education has been entitled the Department for Employment, Education and Training. Can it be that the primary outcome of education is foreseen to be a human being trained for employment? This utilitarian view may change as communities have a say in school governance. On the other hand, it may be accentuated. Subject to the findings about enhancement of educational quality, this study may contribute to the debate.

The extent to which decision making is being devolved in different localities, the variations in degrees of power to make policy, the collaboration or conflict of laypersons and professionals involved in school governance, and the uniqueness or universality of sites where this is happening, should provide useful information on the theme of school administration.

What indicators can be given from samples of practice that governance impacts on the effectiveness of schools? A literature search indicates that research into exemplary and effective schooling shows an amalgam of factors contributing to improved outcomes. Findings on school climate and ethos (Rutter *et al.*, 1979), studies on change in education (Gross *et al.*, 1971; Huberman, 1973; Cohen, 1978; Beare, 1988), aspects of leadership (Sergiovanni, 1982; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Duke, 1987), the impact of communities through investment of their "social capital" (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987), the emergent theme of participation (Watson, 1977; Connell, *et al.* 1982, Beare, 1987), and the trend for legislators and administrators to

promote decentralisation of educational management as demonstrated in laws, regulations, reports and events, both within Australia and overseas in the past two decades, have important implications for governance. The aim of this study is to contribute to knowledge about the possibilities of decentralisation, and the outcomes of devolution in terms of quality.

Structure of the thesis

The five pairs of research hypotheses and questions aligned to five stages within the conceptual framework comprise a blueprint for this study. Thereafter, the thesis is similarly divided into five sections. The first section consists of three chapters concerned with aspects of educational administration: the problem of participants' potential to make influential policy is introduced in Chapter 1, related literature is reviewed in the following chapter, and Chapter 3 details the methodology for inquiry into the problem of participatory governance.

The second section of the thesis pertains to the broad scenario of decentralisation at the international, national and intrastate levels. Chapter 4 deals with presuppositions about boundaries for the study and parameters of the investigation. There follow two chapters in which evidence is recorded from the places observed during the fieldwork. Evidence will be presented in a form entitled Case Records. These are divided to differentiate international locations (Chapter 5) from those within Australia (Chapter 6). Inferences drawn from the patterns, processes and politics of the Case Records appear in Chapter 7.

In the third section, the elusive concept of educational quality is developed from both theoretical and practical standpoints. Chapter 8 seeks to identify the components of quality. Theoretical and research conclusions on the phenomenon are augmented by evidence gleaned from informants on location. In addition, educational experts' views, researchers' findings, and professional educationalists' opinions are discussed to arrive at formulation of a contextual model for educational quality. Implications for school administration arising from the model are proposed in Chapter 9, where the notion of administration is further examined.

Core concerns of participatory governance are described in Section 4. Three chapters concentrate on the performance, procedures and policies of school-site government in which local community participate. In Chapter 10 major factors emerging from analysis of the Case Records are examined as key issues for case studies of practice. The techniques employed by the researcher, including participant observation and document analysis, are also explained in this chapter. They provide a background to the content of the succeeding chapter.

Evidence of governance in action is presented as three Case Studies in Chapter 11. Chapter 12 draws inferences as to the efficacy, efficiency and effectiveness of participatory governance as practised in each case. Possibilities for beneficial outcomes from policy are also be indicated in Chapter 12.

Finally, Section 5 is devoted to a discussion of the potential and influence of participatory governance. Conclusions about the research hypotheses and questions are provided in Chapter 13. It addresses each in turn with the findings from theory and practice explicated in the thesis. The final chapter summarises the research study. Insights and issues resulting from the deliberations are submitted to arrive at a paradigm for participatory governance.

Summary of Chapter 1

This introductory chapter has provided an orientation to the study of governance. It began by outlining the study and stating its purposes. Description of the research problem follows. Devolved decision making is explained in the context of decentralised educational administration. Information which needs to be collected and analysed during inquiry into the study's problem is proposed. Pertinent research findings are mentioned and terms to be used throughout the thesis are defined. Guidelines for the investigation are delineated in the form of a set of related hypotheses and questions within a conceptual framework. The significance of the study is suggested. An overview of the structure of the thesis concludes the first chapter. In the course of the chapter, some reference to relevant literature has been made, but a more detailed review of the theoretical basis is undertaken in Chapter 2 to elaborate on the elements of this inquiry.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

It was indicated in the previous chapter that research into the central problem of this study does not appear to have been plentiful, although elements identified in the general hypothesis - decentralisation, policy making, and educational quality - have received attention from theoreticians and researchers. Relevant literature is reviewed in this chapter in a sequence which correlates with the constituents of the conceptual framework (Figure 1, page 12) for the present study. Each of the major factors will be examined in turn in order to formulate a theoretical basis for a study of governance.

These factors occur in the context of the administrative process in general and the politics of school government in particular. They are those concerned with a purported devolutionary trend in the administration of education. They include systems of organisation, specific attributes and actions in locations, variances in models of governance, powers and procedures for policy making, and performance indicators. The human context of community participation in school-site government permeates all of these and underlies the central hypotheses.

At this stage, relationships between these elements of the study's problem must be 'presumed', as Miles & Huberman (1984:28) advise. From the outset it is intended to follow the qualitative methods expounded by Miles & Huberman (1984) for focusing and bounding data collection. Their emphasis on analysis during fieldwork, both within sites and across sites, fits well with the design for this study. Conclusive analysis, and recommendations for presenting findings to generate meaning from the data, will be more fully explained in Chapter 3, and exercised in the chapters that follow it. While this chapter will concentrate on constituents of the problem, the following chapter will outline literature related to design considerations for the research. Literature on educational quality and its implications for administration will be reviewed in greater detail in the third section of the thesis (Chapters 8 and 9). By that stage of the research it is expected that the focus for specific and significant concerns of governance will have been more clearly established from the collection of relevant data and reflection on the analysis.

Before engaging in a review of literature related to the study's problem, the constituents of that problem are revisited.

Constituents of the problem

During the years since free and secular schooling became compulsory in western countries, educational systems administration developed to a point in the mid-twentieth century of being highly centralised. Financial management, appointments, curricula, and standards testing were undertaken almost exclusively from a central location, generally at the seat of government, either Federal, State or Provincial. The functions were carried out by professional administrators, sometimes pejoratively termed 'bureaucrats'. There were some variations, some examples of decentralisation, but the authoritarianism and paternalism of education systems in many countries conformed to the centralisation pattern also evident in services such as health or housing.

In those times, Governments legislated, departments administered, head teachers acted executively, teachers implemented the directives in the same bureaucratic mode as administration in other spheres of public service provision. While Government systems of education in countries may have varied somewhat in specifics (localised or district school boards have been a feature in the United States since its Constitution whereas New Zealand has a history of swings between centralisation and decentralisation) there was an apparent pattern of administrative control and power emanating from the central government agency. This bureaucratic model followed the precepts of the German sociologist, Weber, to whom Hughes (1977:48) attributes the type of administration characterised by a well-defined hierarchy of authority and an impersonality of human relationships. Hughes admits this is the antithesis of the devolutionary model of administration. He avers a threat Weber saw of irrationality and frustration inherently occurring in large organisations through personal bias and possible organisational inefficiency if his 'ideal type' of bureaucracy was not adopted.

Literature which appears relevant to the problems major constituents is reviewed in the following sequence:

1. devolution,
2. administration,
3. governance,
4. models of governance,
5. policy making,
6. policy makers,
7. zones of influence for professionals and laypersons,
8. exemplary schooling,
9. educational quality,
10. indicators of quality, and
11. its measurement.

1. Devolution

At the beginning of this last decade of the twentieth century, identification of the reality of devolution from the centre provides a link between the sites from which data will be collected during this research project. Although not the main focus of this study, which is the potential of governing bodies, democratisation of bureaucracy is regarded as a reasonable starting point for the investigation. After scrutiny of the politics of school government in twelve countries, Baron (1981:279) makes it clear that there has been "a general movement to promote greater public and teacher involvement in decision making in schools and school systems". However, Baron's (1981:283) conclusion is that "there has been a slackening of interest in school councils almost from the moment they have been instituted or remodelled". The political climate ten years after his work was published is now different. Previously regarded as the prerogative of central, bureaucratic and professional management, it can now be observed in many locations that certain decision making processes are being devolved to the immediate local level. Increased demand for accountability in education, particularly in costs and standards, appears to stem from public awareness of the value that community involvement in educational planning has to remedy perceived defects in centralised systems. A concern in education appears to be that the outcome for its consumers, the next generation, will be an improved product, namely enhanced quality of education, from deliberations of administration in which the public is more closely involved.

Generalised features of decentralisation will be observed at the commencement of the fieldwork. Literature has been reviewed to obtain indications of what to expect in different locations. At this point, attention is focused on the United States, England, New Zealand and Australia. Further reference will be made to these, and other locations in Section 3.

Devolution: United States

In the United States, decentralisation appears congruent with the democratic ideal of the American Constitution. However, it is suggested in the literature that bureaucratic centralisation is prevalent within States of the Union. This is paradoxical. Jennings (1981:23) asks: "in a nation with the longest history of decentralised, lay citizen - controlled school system, why was there in the 1960s a vast and often angry movement for citizen participation and community control of schools?"

Goodlad (1984:273) finds that there are defenders of the central bureaucratic organisation of American public schools. As he explains it, that position develops from a fear that "the parochial values and beliefs of a few families or a neighbourhood" limit a broader array of viewpoints. Goodlad's (1984:274) data reflect a requirement for a "rebalancing of power toward greater decentralization and localism". He notes: "The wish for this kind of shift in power comes through clearly for our sample. It implies the

significance of the school as a unit for improvement and those associated with the individual school as persons to effect change".

In 1965, "overcentralization made any innovation nearly impossible to execute" was the verdict of Gittell, quoted by Lopate *et al.* (1970:137) after their examination of decentralisation and community participation in public education. One of their concerns was that local participation in school decision making should allow for recognition of not only the rights of black Americans to have a say but also the culture of North American indigenous people. In their localities, those people should be able to become involved in participatory decision making, acceptable to their culture, for their own children. This, too, has implications for educational administration in New Zealand and Australia. In both countries there is a minority, but increasingly vocal, indigenous population. While it can be seen from Gittell's findings that devolution would allow for intrinsic values, beliefs and ideologies, cultural differences of the kind she studied will not be included in this present study. Such work, however, highlights the impact individual or collective values may make on issues raised by devolving decision making.

Another area which may have considerable impact on the study's findings is the expertise of personnel. Deviation from the expected professional 'expert' can be found in technical school administration. According to Jennings (1981:30), participants in councils of learning institutions concerned with vocational training programs in the United States are businessmen, trade union representatives and teachers. In Jennings' opinion, that method of community representation is successful because the purpose of governing bodies in those institutions is to ensure that the latest technology is reflected in the courses offered, and that the school responds to industry's need for skilled workers. Councillors on such bodies have the necessary experience to meet these requirements. In other words, personal inputs are seen as appropriate, and institutional outcomes are clearly defined and are capable of fairly straightforward evaluation. Governance of schools, as distinct from vocational training institutes, is more complex, as will be demonstrated later in more detail. Nonetheless, there is a precedent in administration of technical education for successful involvement of the local community in its organisation, albeit by a group perceived to have specialised expertise.

Appropriate expertise is an aspect which may be seen as requisite to reforms in school governance, apposite human experience may be another. Parents and community participants may be expected to have credentials in this connection. Should they be discounted? A growing belief in America, that the key to school reform is political and procedural change, is highlighted by Cohen (1978:430), who writes, "the assumption is that increasing popular control over schools will make them more responsive to social needs and will improve their effectiveness". Cohen (1978:446) finds that, although local participation is now routine procedure and legally mandated, yet community members sometimes surrender or ignore this right, or cede authority to professionals. He lists a host

of private organisations which operate successfully by combining professional and community participation. This prompts speculation as to the criteria of competence required for governing bodies and also the community representation which may be available.

A partnership of the business community and educators is advanced by South Carolina State Governor Riley (1986:43). As a reform of educational administration in the United States, he gives these reasons for his view:

> The formulation of a sound relationship with the business community has a number of advantages for both business and schools. It recognizes the unmistakable link between quality of education and quality of life. It also recognizes the dramatic demographic changes in our nation, the need for schools to expand the base of support within the community.

Devolution: England

In England, as far back as the Education Act 1944, the roles of central versus local government have been spelled out. In 1977, the Taylor Committee recommended widening the base of participation in schools and considering the extent to which curriculum could be considered a matter of community as well as professional concern. Baron (1981) comments on the ebb and flow of involvement by political parties in reforming school government in the intervening years. Although the 1944 Act was "sympathetic to parent representation on governing bodies", Whitehead & Aggleton (1986:435) credit only nine councils and eleven boroughs in England with having done so by the late 1960s. Community representatives were mainly councillors from the dominant political parties. In 1970, a pressure group formed the National Association of Governors and Managers as a policy making agency to press for more parent participation. Baron (1981), Whitehead & Aggleton (1986), and Pascal (1987) all comment on the aftermath of the Taylor Report and the Education Act 1980. Pascal (1987:268) quotes a National Association of Governors and Managers' study in 1975 which revealed that 85% of local authorities had parental representatives, 74% had teacher representatives and 25% had student representatives.

The Education Act 1980, however, retreated from the Taylor Report's recommendations for equal representation and equal exercise of power by lay and professional school governors. Baron (1981:97) notes the fears that "political party personages" might be in the majority on school councils. The result of these changes was that school governors in the 1980s were "unsure of their powers, purposes, or identity" (Pascal, 1987:273). This was remedied somewhat by the Education Act 1986. It emphasised training so as to clarify governors' responsibilities. The Education Reform Act 1988 finally set in place the local management of schools (Coopers & Lybrand, 1988). This reform of the English public school system will be commented upon in more detail in Chapter 5.

Governance training eventuated from the devolutionary trend. Burgess & Sofer (1986) prepared a handbook and training course which were inspired by the National

Association of Governors and Managers. Although written for British conditions, it encapsulates advice which could apply to school governance in many places. The following summarises six principles of the Taylor Report (1977) which have broad application for governance:

1. Within the framework of national and local policies the special character of the individual school is precious to most people and should be protected.
2. That character is a product of local considerations and of the skill, support and concern of local people.
3. One body should have delegated responsibility for running the school, and in that body no one interest should be dominant: it should be a secure partnership of local authority, staff, parents, pupils where appropriate, and the community.
4. The governing body should be responsible for the life and work of the school as a whole; neither the school's activity nor accountability for its success should be divided.
5. Promoting and protecting good relationships within the school and between the school and its parents and community was as important a function of the governing body as making decisions.
6. The details of any new arrangements for governing bodies could be left to local discretion but their essential features should be 'universal.

Devolution: New Zealand

The earliest traditions of political action in New Zealand were regional or local in nature, according to Macpherson (1989b:110) who adds "New Zealand has taken every chance of getting responsive government". Yet, the Scott Report (1986) found education was being undermined by three major problems

- 'provider capture', that is, where the providers of education have captured the terms of their service
- a grossly elaborated structure, so elaborate that information flows and lines of accountability were confused and confusing; and
- obsolete administrative practices and attitudes.

The second Lange Labour Government established the Picot Taskforce in 1987. In the following year, its report reinforced that of Scott (1986) in finding, among other concerns, that there was little distinction between policy making and policy implementation, and between policy and advisory roles and service provision. Almost all of the Picot recommendations were accepted, promptly legislated for, and 1 October 1989 set as the changeover date for implementing them. The Picot Report (1988), *Administering for Excellence*, can be seen as a blueprint for community involvement in effective administration in education. It is the view of Macpherson (1989b:111) that the Picot exercise "was never about relocating administrative functions closer to the client". Instead,

in his opinion, "real devolution was considered as a means of altering the balance of power between the providers and the clients to raise satisfaction levels". For whichever reason, the New Zealand model demonstrates maximal devolution.

Devolution: Australia

The Australian community, according to Macpherson (1989b:109), is politically 'remarkably different' from that of New Zealand. He finds there is in Australia an anti-authoritarian national psyche combined with an egalitarian myth. This produces a belief that "bureaucracy could deliver equal treatment in an impartial way".

Since the earliest days of its history, education in Australia, as in the United States, has been a matter largely for the States and central bureaucracy therein. Formation of Parent Associations early in this century provided a measure of community involvement in schools but, as Hughes (1981:135) writes, "Their constitutions and their practice were limited to the receipt of information and the raising of funds". Further, he comments that during the 1950s various visiting educators, sponsored either by the New Education Fellowship or New Horizons, severely criticised the strong centralisation of decision making, non-reaction to local needs, and lack of public involvement in the major issues of Australian education.

In Tasmania, as early as 1968, the Hughes Report recommended community participation at the school and regional level. Another Hughes Report (1973), this time submitted for organisation and administration in the Australian Capital Territory, recommended the setting up of an education authority whose specific charter was to delegate to schools the maximum responsibility in decision making, including specific powers with respect to curriculum, staffing, and finance. Later, Hughes (1981:131) observed that parent participation in significant decisions in Australian schools is recent, that it was given remarkable impetus by the School Commission developments in the 1970s, and that it has slowed since then. This view may reflect a similar pattern in other countries. More recently, Hughes' remarks on Tasmanian education were quoted in a media article (*The Bulletin*, May 1989): "The weakest element of the system is the degree to which the community is involved in decision making. Parent groups don't play the part they could and ought to". In 1981, Hughes (1981:154) cautioned that participation by parents, teachers and students in the process of decision making may be hampered if "teachers make school-based decision making mean teacher-based decision making". No mention was made of participation by other community members who may be stakeholders and thus have an interest.

Overviewing the devolutionary trend in some locations is a preliminary to observation in those places, and in some others, where inquiry will be pursued during fieldwork for this study. Findings from that inquiry are recorded in Section 3 (Chapters 8

and 9). Decentralisation of decision making presupposes that the administrative function performed by the 'ideal type' of bureaucrat envisaged by Weber (1947) is being devolved to other types of executives. Attention now turns to the process of administration.

2. Administration

Administration is a manifestation of social order for organisational units, or, put another way, as Hodgkinson (1981:143) does, "it could be construed as the art of imposing order". As a generalisation, the social units of society are "similar in form and function, each family being much like any other family in society, and each community like every other community" (Halsey, 1986:147). But, Halsey adds, "as society advances, it comes to depend increasingly on the division of labour". Increasing in importance in modern societies, too, writes Halsey (1986:148), is one principle of social order as the form of the authority of rationally created rules, that is domination. Halsey affirms the state as the most important source of authoritative rules. Yet in Britain, as elsewhere in locations featured in this study, Halsey (1986:152) points out that there exists "the essentially unprincipled inequality of distribution of wealth and income" which continues to present as a major dilemma for the political culture of democracy. Within the democratic framework, Halsey (1986:155) finds the development of the social rights of citizenship has generated conflict as well as consensus, confidence in political and social order has been reduced and the balance of authority has shifted somewhat in the latter part of this century. Halsey (1986:159) asserts that "frailty of authority is a characteristic feature of large and complex modern societies".

The rule of government can be described as 'bureaucratic'. This term has become pejorative, but originally it was used to describe a type of social organisation devised "for rational and efficient pursuit of defined purposes" (Halsey, 1986:164). Its stability and reliability as a system was vouched for by Weber (1947:337):

> however much people complain about the 'evils of bureaucracy', it would be sheer illusion to think for a moment that continuous administrative work can be carried out in any field except by officials working in offices. For the needs of mass administration today, it is completely indispensable. The choice is only between bureaucracy and dilettantism in the field of administration.

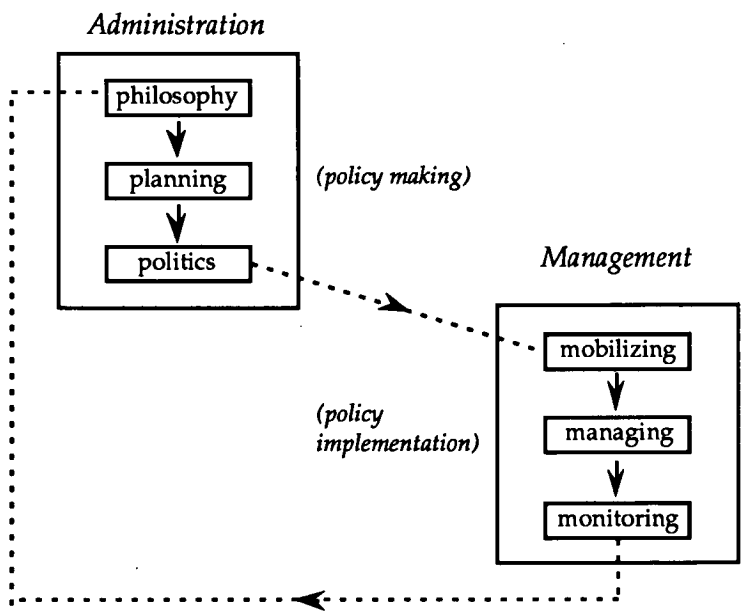
Thus has been brought into contention several themes on the variation of administration in democratic countries: units to be administered, hierarchies, inequalities, citizenship, change, regulation, authority, and dilettantism or amateurism. Halsey (1986:168) demarcates three types of administrative organisation: the personal authority of a charismatic leader; the traditional authority of "what has actually, allegedly, or presumably always existed"; and the bureaucracy of Weber. Halsey clearly defines the last organisational method as appealing to "the rule of general laws applying to all

within the jurisdiction of the organization without regard to differences of race, age, family background, or social condition". Nevertheless, Halsey cites Weber's contention that organisations differ greatly when they come to decide whether what they are doing is "morally right" based upon the "correct and relevant data".

Reference has been made to theories of administration. Hodgkinson (1983:16) comments on the growth of Weberian bureaucracy "to an endemic degree in the public and private sectors of developed countries". Hodgkinson (1983:30) writes of emergence since Weber of other rational planning models and techniques, Management by Objectives, Program Evaluation Review Technique, Planning, Programming Budget Systems and affirms that "all of these deal with the realm of value as well as the realm of fact".

Hodgkinson (1981:144) propounds the philosophical nature of administration. He distinguishes between administration and management and notes the differential expertise required within the administrative process. He devised a taxonomy (Figure 2) to illustrate the process.

Figure 2. **The basic taxonomy (Hodgkinson, 1983:27)**



Hodgkinson's taxonomy distinguishes policy making as the function of administration whereas policy implementation is seen as the task of management. In the context of this study, the function of management is consigned to professional educators and their para-professional assistants. They operate in the internal environment of schools and are concerned with teaching and learning. Management personnel are not the focus of this study; it is on the policy making and policy makers for individual schools, not on policy

implementation in them. Professional educators, however, are not discounted as community participants in governance. Indeed, they assist in forming the vital link between administration and management. The linkage is neatly illustrated in the taxonomy as the dotted line bridging the sectors. Dissemination of policy, and subsequent feedback that may be utilised in continuing policy making, are the essence of communication depicted in the 'bridge' between administration and management.

Three phases in policy making are given by Hodgkinson (1981:145). Included in the first phase are the philosophical processes of argument, rhetoric, and value clarification. In the second phase, these are translated into plans that, in turn, are reduced to a written and communicable form. The third phase is "the political process of persuasion" of management. Hodgkinson finds that values permeate the policy making process. He devised a value typology to illustrate the pervasive nature of human values in organisations. Hodgkinson (1981:149) explains that:

> Values, for present and for general administrative purposes, can be defined as concepts of the desirable with motivating force. They can be classified as Type 1 (involving primarily major acts of commitment, will, faith, or belief); Type 11A (involving primarily the use of reason for the analysis of the consequences of holding or acting upon a given value); Type 11B (involving primarily a search for consensus with other persons); Type 111 (involving primarily an individual's affect and hedonistic calculus).

That organisations are dependent on meanings and purposes that individuals bring to them from the wider society is argued by Greenfield (1978:3). He admits that he generated a 'controversy on theory' by questioning what facts and theories mean if what is seen depends on values, assumptions, and experiences, but 'ultimately on self' (Greenfield, 1978:2). He draws attention to the personal basis of knowledge and to the crisis of understanding and perception that are involved in making truth and making theory. Greenfield (1978:19) finds that "Our values show in the theories we defend". He argues that the personal and the academic are intertwined and confirms this by suggesting that what is needed in organisational studies are "explorations that tell us more about. . . being an administrator".

3. Governance

The term governance implies some form of government. While day-to-day administration of schools is in the hands of employed professionals, the overall administrative responsibility for a learning institution in devolutionary times increasingly appears to be taking the form of participatory governance involving professionals and laypersons.

It is a fundamental responsibility of governments based on the Westminster model that revenue for public services (and concomitant accountability for it) should be seen to be equitably allocated by elected representatives of the people to their parliaments. In the case of educational administration, this responsibility is perceived to be delegated, now

not only to the authority of a central department of education exclusively, but further 'down the line' to schools for exercising some power and control. Thus school administration becomes a form of what Hughes *et al.* (1985:43) term 'sub-government'.

It is the efficacy of that sub-government, its authority and policy making, that is the subject of this study's inquiry. What is first sought is the scope of local community participation in sub-government in public systems of schooling. It has already been shown that the extent of decentralisation varies in locations. This can present as a dichotomous situation to both providers and consumers of education. Many educationists have foreseen, as did Walker (1977:33), "an inexorable, if slow, move towards a national educational system", particularly in the area of curriculum and testing but also in funding. Comments such as this do not point to decentralisation or to any sub-governmental authority.

The ongoing educational debate in Australia about a national curriculum, the formation of the Curriculum Corporation; the extinction of the Schools Commission; the reallocation of the education portfolio within a Ministry of Employment, Education and Training; and the diminution in real terms of Federal and State educational budgets; indicate some fulfilment of Walker's projection. Yet, alongside all of these changes, educational administration is being restructured. Decentralisation does not appear to be a facile response to volatile, parochial, public opinion. A rationale and structure for school governance does not seem to intend that a local community should 'reinvent the wheel' for the process. More likely, the intention is, figuratively, to harness an administrative 'cart', purposefully built for local conditions, to previously invented 'wheels' of responsible policy making. The maximum extent of the devolutionary trend would seem to signify that an individual institution will generate most of its own agendae for governance, but this will occur within a larger national agenda emanating from a gradually diminishing centralised power base. This leads to a question about what powers may be decentralised.

Allocation of resources and choice of staff, especially the school principal, are among those powers. In the light of what is known now about the profound effect on organisations of leadership (Sergiovanni, 1984; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Starratt, 1986; Duke, 1986, 1987), local communities' power to choose staff is not an inconsiderable one. In Australia, this area for decision making has received detailed recommendations in a series of case studies edited by Chapman (1985). Chapman reports on the experiences of eight school councils involved in selecting a senior school administrator. Another booklet offers possible selection procedures and practices. Chapman (1985:57) indicates that success in choosing principals is dependent on "thorough planning and a systematic approach" on the part of the School Council or Board. That is clearly one role for governance. It begs the question of how the roles of governors and practising educators relate to each other.

A British case study (Ebbutt,1984) of the relationship between a school and its governing body has some relevant findings. Two quotations from Ebbutt (1984:37; 43) may

suffice to illustrate views on governing bodies; the considerable scepticism of one teacher's view of governors is followed here by the opinion of a governor at the same school:

> I don't relate to them whatsoever because we have no liaison with governors at all. We have a representative who is not allowed to report back to us the proceedings of governors' meetings, so as far as I am concerned they might as well not be there.
>
> I have been a governor for just this last 18 months, so I have had a limited amount of experience. I think I largely see it as a supportive role to the Head. It has not, as I have seen it, taken any major initiatives of its own. It has always, as far as I can see, been responsive to the needs of the school as they have been expressed through the Head rather than taking an independent line of its own.

A degree of ineffectual activity or mere reactivity by one school board can be detected here. This may not be general. Informants from other samples of governing bodies will be sought during the inquiry of this present study. The context of Ebbutt's case study, a government grammar school for girls in 1981, may not be a representative sample, hence the inquiry into a variety of sites, including non-government institutions which have traditions of school-site governance.

4. Models of governance

(i) School governance in an Australian non-government system

Generally, an independent school board's tasks are to be carried out in fulfilment of the aspirations of the institutions' founders and to provide an educational organisation based on their principles. It is essential for personnel to be "spiritually in harmony with the aims of their school" affirms Abrahamson (1988:1). Tasks are carried out by Board members acting in unison. In each case, boards are comprised of representatives of their school community. In the six independent schools surveyed in Victoria, Australia, Hansen (1971:95) finds that, while there is a preponderance of clergy in his occupational sample, there is also a fair proportion of company directors, lawyers, accountants, academics and graziers. Woodward (1987:8) confirms similar occupations in his sample, in which there is also an architect. These persons have been nominated as governors because of their special interest, expertise, affiliation, or the commitment which they bring to the task of school governance.

The legality and powers attached to the school governance functions are usually specified in the particular institution's Constitution or Articles of Association. Are these principles adhered to? Historical precedents may be found for procedures on governing bodies. For instance, an extract from a history of the Methodist Ladies' College in Melbourne, Australia, (Zainu'ddin, 1982:237) placed on record a former principal's reminiscences of earlier days of the Executive Committee:

> The monthly meeting occupied approximately one and a half hours. I knew that speed was essential with busy men, and I wrote the minutes beforehand with the anticipated decisions. If all seems educationally heretical, the fact was that the system worked well.

Conservatism and authoritarianism may be detected in this quotation, but not the fact that the principal and council members of this girls' school were all males. There is still a male principal at that college for girls. The present incumbent, David Loader (1988:9) writes "a school can only be successful if it correctly identifies the sources of change in its society and adapts its curriculum correctly". He advocates strategic planning by the Council and Principal, taking account of the environment external to the school - world economy, technology, and continuing education - and emphasising that independent schools should run on long term planning, 'not on memories'. Nothing is said about changes in perceptions of gender equity.

Non-government school boards act autonomously and are administrators of each local institution in the sense that almost all decisions are made very close to the point of where they are to be carried out. The policy makers are presumably cognisant of the environment peculiar to that institution. That there has been a partnership between the lay and professional members of each learning institution may be taken for granted but the extent to which this has been, or is, a subordinate or superordinate relationship is a matter which has implications to be investigated in this study. Judged from literature (Archdale, 1972; Darling, 1978; Oats, 1986; Hogg, 1986; Montgomery, 1988), experience of this relationship in non-government schools has been mixed. While Darling (1978) and Oats (1986) acknowledge it as a pleasant and fruitful one, Archdale (1972) and Montgomery (1988) find the reverse. Hogg (1986) finds that The Headmasters Conference, a professional body of male leaders of independent schools in England and Australia, was constrained in 1967 to draw up a document *The Relationship Between Governing Bodies of Schools and Headmasters* (see Appendix 14) in order to codify conduct for both sides.

In reality, this model of decentralised decision making could be just a sample of centralisation of power writ small, a mini-bureaucracy. An essential factor in the efficacy of this model of governance is that it closely resembles commercial/industrial practice. If the organisation is not producing an acceptable quality of product, consumers will not buy it. What the non-government model may contribute to efficacious governance practice will be further investigated in Section 4 of this thesis.

(ii) School governance in public systems

In many places, government systems of education have been based on a central organisational model, with provision for all public schools coming from a central bureaucracy under governmental control. But it has been speculated already that a trend towards devolution of responsibility to regions and even localities has gathered momentum

in this system. Legislation in many countries indicates response to opinion that there has been need to reform education. Major educational reports in each of the countries within this study have recommended changes to implement such legislation. Research into educational administration has produced findings on leadership and exemplary management of schools which have highlighted participative and collaborative practices.

The increasing acceptance that participatory democracy should replace older patterns of autocracy and privilege is apparent in the high profile given to school governing bodies. A literature review prompts questions as to the potential impact governing bodies may have on quality of education through policy making. It would appear that there have been successes and failures in school governance in non-government institutions. In government systems, where local communities often have had little say, policy outcomes from governance are no more predictable. Cases of communities in conflict with educational administration (Auld, 1976; Peshkin, 1982; Carspecken, 1987) cannot be ignored. Recently there was reported (*Times Educational Supplement*, 28 February, 1992:6) an extreme case of conflict between governors and a head teacher at Stratford School in Newham, London, into which the Secretary of State for Education was drawn. This demonstrates that conflict cannot be prevented by local management of schools. On the other hand, research such as the North American case study of Symre (1987), has found positive effects from community participation.

There are few other case studies of school-site governance in Australia to be found for comparison with this study. The general tenor of Australian research into governance has been towards historical accounts of boards and councils. Case studies into management of change in non-government schools by Desmarchelier (1981), and the case study of one school council's conflict and consensus by Gorey (1984), are closer to the concerns of this study. The case study method itself appears to be well used (Hansen, 1971; Ebbutt, 1984; Bunday, 1984). Investigation of individual cases may be expected to illustrate not only the uniqueness of administrative practices but also their commonalities, particularly in the public system.

(iii) Exceptional school governance

In the United States, the ills of the public school system in Chicago are ascribed by Walberg *et al.* (1988:72) to "the growth of large bureaucracy, and the absence of accountability". Chicago's schools have been described by U.S Secretary of Education Bennett as "the worst in the Nation" (Walberg *et al.* 1988:7). Promoted as a blueprint for public school restructuring to give parents and community members a "real voice and choice in the education that their children receive", the cure for these ills is the following remedy suggested by Walberg *et al.* (1988:111):

> It requires taking control of the schools from a remote and too powerful bureaucracy and returning it to principals, teachers, and local community representatives. It requires giving parents of students enrolled in each school a voice in the selection of its principal and the establishment of school policies. And it requires allowing parents to choose which schools their children attend.

This cure is seen realistically by Walberg *et al.* (1988:125) in their admission that "it would be foolish to claim that this restructuring of the Chicago Public Schools would immediately result in massive numbers of student success stories". Militating against this cure, they note especially powerful obstacles to educational achievement such as "community disorganization, poverty, divided families, street crime, and violence".'

Exceptional social conditions such as those are not seen to predominate in locations within the boundaries established for this present governance study. Nonetheless, the example of Chicagoans uniting to reform education (CURE) highlights how the exception may prove the rule. Closer to home in Australia, and to the concerns of this study, an isolated sample of school governance has been described by Caldwell & Spinks (1988). Model practice at Rosebery District High School in the far west of Tasmania demonstrates self-management by staff, students and community in a long term program entitled 'Collaborative School Management'. It is an idiosyncratic example of school governance in that it occurs within a government system in which centralised administration has been, and continues to be, very much the norm.

The experience of setting up, and implementing, a self-managing program is detailed by Caldwell & Spinks (1988). The consistent delegation to the school community level of authority of decision making related to administering a school's human, material, temporal and technological resources is significant in any context. Caldwell & Spinks (1988:vii) insist that the decentralisation which has occurred at this exceptional site of school governance has been administrative rather than political, adding that decisions have been made "within a framework of local, state or national policies and guidelines". This sample of exceptional school-site governance will be further investigated in Section 2.

5. Policy making

Questions arise as to what decisions have to be made within the constraints of empowerment, and how policy may be formulated within the confines of the community-based, collective procedures. Following legislation (School Act 1970), providing for local autonomy, and in response to a perceived need for boards of education to develop and update policies and improve policy making processes in Alberta, Canada, a guide book by Caldwell & Tymko (1980) outlines comprehensive procedures for this process. This pragmatic approach to policy making does not discount a philosophical base.

In Hodgkinson's (1983:27) taxonomy of administration and management, policy making is the process intended for administration. There are tensions in this policy process, as pointed out in the OECD report (1971:47), *Educational Policies for the 70s :*

> The fundamental problem of policy/planning is thus a potential conflict between a necessary technocratic basis if a system is to be effectively planned in relation to future needs, and if 'wastage' and conflict within the system are to be minimized, and if the creative process of educational change and development in which individuals, social groups and communities can play an active part in the development and control of education.

Policy making at the central government level is mirrored in that of the sub-government of school-site administration. The policy process in each institution involves a fundamental philosophical rationale with regard to curriculum, staffing and financial resources allocation, formulation of a comprehensive set of procedures which have wide-ranging implications for management implementation, and political persuasion in methods of effective communication of those policies. None of these can be accomplished in a vacuum. As Louis & Dentler (1988:47) point out, decision making involves assessing and analysing 'information available'. Baron (1981:9) advises of "need for technical or professional knowledge to be made more widely available at all levels". This is borne out by the study of Louis & Dentler (1988) which aimed to find how knowledge was useful for school improvement. Louis & Dentler (1988:37) suggest that "outside assistance and support at a modest level" should be sought. The content of required control information available to governing bodies as they make policy, and the way in which policy may be disseminated, are among inquiry tasks for fieldwork in this study.

Dissemination of information about educational policy formulated collaboratively by a local community of laypersons and professionals appears to be an important procedure. If policy is clearly expressed, this form of communication should go some way to ameliorating differences identified between public and private systems (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987), and between middle and working class parents (Connell *et al.*, 1982). Clearer articulation of the purposes of an institution might assist in resolving such differences of perception and opinion in communities.

Hodgkinson (1981:145) declares the need for policies be in "written and communicable form". This is affirmed by Caldwell & Tymko (1980:111) who define a policy as a major guideline for future discretionary action, not simply a regulation or procedure. A useful model for school board policy making to reflect the values in society (see Appendix 1) has been devised by Caldwell & Tymko (1980:88). It defines procedures to be adopted when boards are engaged in the process of policy making. The sequential stages include consideration of legal sanctions, institutional needs and goals, collecting information, choosing among alternatives, adoption, action, and, lastly, assessing outcomes in the light of original objectives. Caldwell & Tymko (1980:31) insist that school boards need to have a

"policy on policy making" (see Appendix 1.1) if their deliberations are to produce improved outcomes.

The role of a policy group in helping to create an excellent school was delineated by Beare *et al.* (1988). They include the model of a Collaborative School Management Cycle (see Figure 11, page 172) devised by Caldwell & Spinks (1988:37). Clear and unambiguous specification of a policy group's function is given in that model (Caldwell & Spinks, 1988:106). It includes setting goals, identifying needs, adopting policy, also disseminating, evaluating, and budgeting.

Policy making on curriculum may be regarded as the domain of professionals at the workface. Should curriculum also be the main concern of governance in a learning institution whose policy making may be regarded as its vital and overarching role?

Baron (1981:14) suggests that any substantial role in managing financial and other resources may be a major problem in devolving decision making. He warns that principals and teachers may prefer to negotiate with government agencies than to interact directly with the community. However, he says that governors of schools can share in moulding the school system and help in legitimising professional leadership in it by their deliberations, that is, by their policy making.

It can be deduced that areas of school business to be included in these deliberations on policy may prove significant to the efficacy of governance. In a study of Scottish school councils, Macbeth *et al.* (1980:25) categorised issues into six discrete sectors. While admitting that some items involved elements of more than one category, it was found that "the predominant issue was usually clear" (Macbeth *et al.*, 1980:142). The issues that they identify are those concerned with school/community, school/home, non-educational, curricular, staffing and accountability. This categorisation illuminates the content of governance business, particularly as the deliberations can be seen to be much broader than curricular or financial matters. Both of these issues tend to be regarded as main concerns of school governing bodies. In their review of related literature, Kimpston & Rogers (1988:354) point out that little is known about the expectations and attitudes that community members bring to decision making on curriculum. Yet curriculum is the significant topic for the participative processes identified by Hughes (1977:53) for a community role in education. Is this the reality for policy makers now?

6. Policy makers

As people are the catalysts for policy formulation, there is the question of what particular skills, attitudes and motivations are required by policy makers in participatory governance. The role that communities can play as policy makers has evolved during a time of great change in societies such as those sharing Australia's heritage. Student protest in the Sixties, anti nuclear activities in the Seventies, environmental action by 'Green' groups in the Eighties together with the 'Rights' movement under many labels - Civil, Human, Women's, Children's, Minority's, Consumers' - are obvious examples. Community participation and cooperation are underlying themes in these movements. Once such

participative action is established, how are decisions made by the participants? How do policy makers perform the collaborative role?

Collaboration appears to be critical to the policy making process of school governance by a local community. That the administrative function may entail conflict can be illustrated by two instances which attracted media attention in Britain: i. a Public Inquiry (Auld, 1976) into a disagreement between the staff and management of a London school, The William Tyndale Junior and Infants School, and ii. a notorious protest by the community of Croxteth Comprehensive School in Liverpool featured in an ethnographic study by Carspecken (1987). Similarly, in the United States, Peshkin (1982) chronicles the behaviour of a village community, 'Killmer', in conflict over school affairs.

Studies that demonstrate consensus rather than conflict in policy making are also to be found. Two fairly recent North American examples of positive community participation have application to this study. Smyre (1987) records the activities of a community in Gaston County, North Carolina whose cooperative efforts in planning for the future provide an example of a participatory, consensus building model for decision making. Over a seven-year period, that community developed a set of processes which included analysing their problems systematically, increasing citizen involvement in decision making, and using innovative leadership techniques.

In a large Mid-western suburban district, a three-year-long collaborative process in curriculum planning was the subject of a two-year case study by Kimpston & Rogers (1988). Their research into the strongly participative project in which community members, as well as teachers and principals, were given substantive planning and decision making roles, provides an apt illustration of improved outcomes as a result of prolonged collective decision making. While the setting is a school district rather than a specific institution, which may make for some differences in comparison with this governance study, nevertheless, the concept appears to be congruent with community consensus. The most successful characteristics of the process for the community members are identified by Kimpston & Rogers (1988:362) as 'the openness of communication', 'agreement of members as to tasks and goals' and the consideration 'for differences of opinion'. Among what they call 'insights', Kimpston & Rogers (1988:363) propose that all three groups of participants - teachers, principals and community members - are motivated to become involved in part by their expectation of 'increased prestige'. This finding fits with that of 'status' found by Gross *et al.* (1966) some twenty years earlier.

Kimpston & Rogers find a need exists to look more closely at the quality of participation; they put the following question "do the degree of participation and the role the participant plays in planning and decision making influence how favourably that process and its outcomes are perceived by the participant?"

Perceptions of the role of policy maker have been explored by Gross *et al.* (1966). Their work in connection with a Schools Executive Studies research program at Harvard, demonstrated critical aspects of roles in administration. Gross *et al.* examined role conflict between a school board and school superintendent. Allowing for variances in demarcation of

roles *vis a vis* other locations and systems, this study shows the differential between relationships in educational administration, between superordinate and subordinate roles. A crucial aspect of this relationship, according to Gross *et al.* (1966:237), is "whether they have consensus on their definition of one another's roles". Gross *et al.* (1966:320) acknowledged that role concepts are a phenomenon that has been neglected or minimised in social science description. They advise that attention to the concepts bring together psychological, anthropological and sociological research; a combination of inquiry disciplines which, in the words of Gross *et al.* (1966:325), fulfils a "need for concepts across the board" in research inquiry into the part played by a collective of persons in school administration.

The findings of Gross *et al.* (1966) were derived from quantitative instruments designed to measure school board performance, they identified the social status, in terms of education and income, also the attitudes of board members to topics such as educational progressivism and political economic conservatism. Another critical consideration for Gross *et al.* was motivation for membership. Motivations varied from civic duty, to representation by a particular pressure group, to gaining political experience or social status. Comparable assessment is made of the role of the professional educator in that scene. Conformity to some kind of expectation of behaviour held by society, or some group within it, was measured by Gross *et al.* The characteristics of a community, its size, form of government and economic base are shown as "related to lack of consensus on role definition within the board" (Gross *et al.*, 1966:208).

Getzels & Guba (1954) also examined aspects of role, accentuating its potential for conflict or effectiveness. Status, attitudes, motivations, conformity to social and professional expectations, personal and community characteristics are therefore considered determinants of role consensus to be investigated in this present study of governance.

The research of Gross *et al.* signals zones of influence in educational administration. During a literature search at the outset of this study, similar 'zones' appear to exist between professional educators and local community members. Literature pertaining to such zones requires review.

7. Zones of influence: professionals and lay persons in governance

The labels 'professional' and 'layperson' have been applied in a general way to distinguish the roles of educators in a school system and lay participants in institutional administration. The characteristics of professionalism *vis a vis* the status of amateurism in the governance of learning institutions has obvious significance in participatory government. They are often regarded as two distinct zones in what Holmes & Ormston (1989:23) suggest is "yet uncharted territory". However, Akenson (1989:530), an Irish historian, comments on the possibilities of an unpaid, appointed board being more independent in thought and action than professional civil servants.

Some characteristics attributed to the two zones may be delineated best by a selection of quotations from relevant literature. The quotes, summarised in Table 2, show

some perceptions attributed to each zone. It is possible to distinguish at least two types of professionals in educational administration; professional teachers in schools and professional civil servants in central control. The role of these officials in departments of education, referred to by Hodgkinson (1983:106) as "the quasi-profession of public service", is outside the scope of in this study for reasons of space, although research into central bureaucracy could yield interesting information. It is evident that 'laity' can also be divided into two sectors; politicians and 'ordinary people' (Sallis, cited in Bainbridge, 1989:25). The role which politicians play in restructuring is expected to be critical to decentralisation. Consideration of it will be touched upon during the inquiry. The following quotations originate in the literature pertaining to locations investigated during the fieldwork for this study.

Table 2. **Perceptions in the context of governance**

1. Professional educators

Quotation	Reference	Original context
"professional grip"	Shipman (1990: 54)	England
"assume that the lay public are not competent to comment on education"	Macpherson (1989c:9)	New Zealand
"dilution of professional influence"	Vacchini(1975)	N.S.W.
"teacher, rather than student oriented"	Cresap (1990:6)	Tasmania
"provider-capture"	Scott (1986)	New Zealand
"producer dominated"	Baker (Hansard, 3/12/87)	England
"not accountable to educational amateurs"	Lange (1988:7)	New Zealand
"detrimental to their status"	Macbeth *et al.* (1980)	Scotland
"professional monopoly"	Macbeth *et al.* (1980:130)	Scotland
"professional quest for autonomy"	Hughes *et al.* (1985:271)	England
"the undemocratic domination of professionals"	Hughes *et al.* (1985:415)	England
"resistant to any external judgements of their performance"	Kogan *et al.* (1984:76)	England
"conservative and resistant to change"	Hughes (1968:32)	Tasmania
"closed professional world of education"	Beattie (1978:45)	Europe

2a Laity - politicians

Quotations	Reference	Original context
"Treasury driven reform"	Rae (1990)	New Zealand
"market forces of the New Right overshadow other aspects"	Adler (1990)	United States
"Minister - representative of people supposedly *vox populi* ... amateur superior to professionals"	Hodgkinson (1983:219)	Canada
"lay head of the government education system"	Beare (1987:5)	Australia
"political expediency overruled"	Maclure (1989)	England
"the discourse and ideology of the New Right"	Retallick *et al.* (1990:7)	N.S.W
"politicians use of education as a vehicle for social and economic policy"	Macpherson (1989a:10)	N.S.W

2b Laity - community participants

"ordinary people"	Sallis (1989)	England
"committed to good government and continuing viability of the school"	ERA88 (Section 53)	England
"human agency (in all its contradictoriness)"	Whitehead & Aggleton (1986: 437)	England
"valuable involvement in peripheral matters"	Macbeth *et al.* (1980)	Scotland
"low visibility enjoyed by a governing body"	Kogan *et al.* (1984:76)	England
"lack necessary knowledge"	Kogan *et al.* (1984:76)	England
"pooling of ignorance"	Macbeth *et al.* (1980:20)	Scotland
"a quite unexplored concept"	Rae (1989:18)	New Zealand
"education is a human affair, parents are powerful allies"	Kirner (1987:15)	Victoria

The question of who are professionals and who are amateurs arises when administration of learning institutions by participatory governance is established.

Without wishing at this juncture to enter the debate noted by Kogan *et al.* (1984:72) as to whether teaching *per se* is a profession, a few of the criteria to define a profession are given by Hodgkinson (1983:101):

- an expertise not immediately available to anyone
- the right to include and exclude
- pretensions to an ethical commitment
- a certain status within the social structure of deference patterns.

Who does administration? Hodgkinson (1983:134) answers by saying that "not only can anybody do it, anybody does, and, often enough, does it very well at that". In this way he concedes "that strictly speaking administration is not a profession at all but an occupation in which some professional people are engaged" (Hodgkinson, 1983:30).

Differentiation between zones of influence is taken to the level of school councils by Macbeth *et al.* (1980) and Kogan *et al.* (1984). In that context, Macbeth *et al.* (1980:131) see variations on the theme of professions (professionalisation, professionality, professionalism, professionals) as they quote the findings of Volmer & Mills (1966) that, at best, a profession is an ideal type which does not exist in reality. In short, a professional may be regarded as another theoretical pure-type in the Weberian tradition. However, teacher credentialing gives it a *cachet*, a defined professionality, as yet, unattainable for governors, trustees, or councillors. It may well be a subject for conjecture whether training for governance will reach the level of attaining formal credentials in future. It must be noted that in this context professional educators are being trained in governance alongside lay participants. Is this an admission of educators' lack of professionalisation in the area of educational administration? Are they not amateurs in governance, too?

So professionalism can be seen to have several definitions. Macbeth *et al.* (1980:135) argue that "just as the profession [teaching] as a whole must relate to society as a whole, so does the prime institution (the school) have a professional duty to relate to its local community". A sense of institutional professionality refers to the argument of Kogan (1971) that the school is a prime institution and has a public personality because of its intrinsic philosophy, curriculum delivery, allocation of resources and relationships with its community. This theory is further developed by Kogan *et al.* (1984:71) as they suggested that schools develop their own sets of values and objectives, and that these must be related to the local community which the school serves.

It becomes evident that individual schools, specific communities, and particular perceptions of educational quality are of significance to the overall concept of governance. Therefore, what might constitute exemplary schooling and educational quality is now considered.

8. Exemplary schooling

While individuals have been shown as crucial to the exercise of effective administration in institutions, so, are individual schools and their propensity to be exemplary. The term 'exemplary schools' used in this study, as by Austin & Garber (1985:207) in theirs, is one capable of multiple meanings. Nevertheless, a scenario for exemplary school practice will be developed later in this study (Section 3) from United States' models (Chrispeels & Pollack, 1990; Walberg, 1990).

Louis & Dentler (1988:36) note the importance of "school focussed reform", as opposed to undue emphasis on individual teacher, student, or problem solutions, as a more productive way forward for the policy making process performed by communities in learning institutions.

Goodlad (1984:31) states that "efforts at improvement must encompass the school as a system of interacting parties, each affecting the others". Purkey & Smith (1985:181) find that it is the "character of schools that seems to influence scholastic performance". An underlying assumption of this study is that a school governing body plays its role both as one of the 'interacting parties' and part of the 'character' of a learning institution. Both Goodlad and Purkey & Smith acknowledge the work of Rutter *et al.* (1979) which distinguishes factors to be found in exemplary schools. The most important is school ethos. One reason for its possible significance to this present study is that school governance could be considered as one of the contributors to the ethos of a school, particularly if its policy making can be shown to have impact. Goodlad remarks that researchers criticise schools but go on to study aspects of them - students, teachers, teaching, and learning - rather than the school. Goodlad senses that support is growing for understanding schools as a prerequisite for improving educational outcomes, for enhancing quality.

9. Educational quality

When the Karmel Committee (1973) reported on Australian schools, one of three deficiencies indicated was in what the Committee called 'the quality of education'. A later committee's report (again, chaired by Peter Karmel) reviewed *The Quality of Education* (1985) to examine the effectiveness of Commonwealth involvement in education. That report defines the quality of education as "a complex and diffuse concept, difficult to characterise and open to interpretation in a number of ways". The Committee's interpretation includes the interaction of such factors as "students and their backgrounds; staff and their skills; schools and their structure and ethos; curricula; and societal expectations". In the same report the Committee (1985:3) quotes from the OECD (1983) document, also entitled *Quality of Education,* which describes the concept:

> For many it is no more than a short hard way of expressing value discontent with the present outcomes of education while covering up a lack of cogent policies and priorities for action ... Quality will always remain a subjective entity.

Strategies and priorities for improving the quality of education as given by the Karmel Committee (1985:173) include the need for improved information from schools and school systems about educational outcomes. This has implications for school governance of institutions as there is an obligation on each institution to be accountable. The Committee found a "lack of clarity apparent in program objectives" which, again, impinges on the responsibilities implicit in administration of schools by governance. The Committee emphasised 'long run objectives' such as support policies for improved learning outcomes and for staff development. The implications for governing bodies are apparent from the advice that "real improvements in the quality of education come from sustained efforts to introduce change and to maintain the momentum of change until it has affected the whole school system".

This brief and localised overview of educational quality will be expanded as the inquiry for the study of governance develops.

10. Indicators: evidential outcomes of quality

In seeking to identify indicators of improved outcomes which could be traced to policies made by a local community participating in school governance, this study is breaking a little new ground. Despite awareness of the 'crystal ball gazing' element in identification of such indicators there has been documentation of what these outcomes might be. Reference to the work of governing bodies of successful non-government institutions over many years indicate that decisions made by an individual Board or Council have been proved appropriate for that institution. Otherwise, it would have ceased to be viable. The virtual autonomy of these institutions may be the significant factor.

What does autonomy entail? It is a matter of fact that such institutions have total authority to appoint staff. The right choice of leaders for these institutions could be regarded as an indicator with distinctive impact on school ethos. In the past decade or so, local selection of educational administrators for schools has been seen by Government, both overseas and within Australia, to be "a key element in the effective implementation of its policy of devolution " (Chapman, 1985:2).

Much is known now about the potential of leadership to effect change in education (Sergiovanni, 1987; Starratt, 1986; Duke, 1986,1987). It follows that school governance decisions on the appointments of leaders and senior staff for schools are critical.

Other indicators of outcomes from the governance deliberations are being sought from the findings of research into this participatory form of administration. There are difficulties in positively identifying these end products of the educational administrative process. As Beare *et al.* (1989:202) point out, one of the problems with education generally is that: "some of the most highly regarded objectives of learning are personal self transforming and intangible ... Educators have always had difficulty in defining both the objectives of education and some of the most desired outcomes, and they always will".

In the internal environment of a learning institution, some effectiveness characteristics may be amenable to being counted, quantified or measured: the number of hours devoted to reading instruction in a week; the success rate of students in a public examination; or the professional development courses members of staff attended. Such indicators may meet primary criteria for assessing productive performance of learning and teaching. But how should outcomes of quality from policy adopted by school-site governance be evaluated? Rather than leave them to "'implicit assumptions, one-sided views, and halo effects we all use for lack of anything better", Dror (1973:25) recommends a rigorous approach to measurement.

If education is to be valued, its quality must somehow be measured. Herein lies the difficulty: identifying criteria that are conceptually unambiguous. Production of precise education indicators is a continuing endeavour in many countries. The problem is put succinctly, if cynically, in the *Times Educational Supplement* (31 January 1992) by a researcher (MacBeath, 1992:16) "why not a sensitive index like the Dow Jones which would tell people at a glance whether education was on its way up or down?" A need for systematic and comprehensible indicators is obviously called for. Can outcomes of participatory governance be defined in qualitative measurable terms? Demonstrable ways that could be useful for this study have been sought.

11. Measurement of quality in devolutionary times

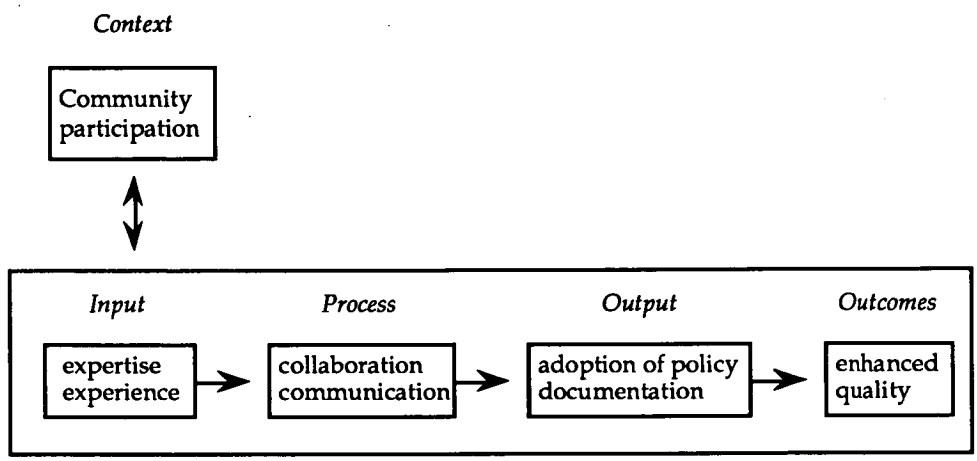
When the intention is to evaluate criteria in educational administration to detect enhanced quality in the resultant product, any search for indicators would appear to require substantiation of some kind. In this case, criteria are required to gauge the influence on quality of education that policies have.

An evaluation of school functioning in the form of process indicators has been developed by Scheerens (1990:62). The most promising indicators for the purpose of this study appear to stem from Scheerens' discernment of a relationship between the classroom or learning level and "a second class of conditions" at the school administrative level. Based on the work of Thompson (1967), Scheerens finds that the successful operation of effective teaching and learning "is dependent on the organization's superstructure (eg. management, coordination structures) protecting the core process against disturbances and external uncertainty". A governing body's fulfilment of that protective role might be expected to be one indicator of attainment of quality in a school.

Scheerens suggests that an individual school's administration can use indicators to support policy making. Scheerens (1990:63) advises systematising thinking on indicator systems in a context/input/process/output/outcomes model. A simple illustration of this (Figure 3) is the application of the model to participatory governance. A general frame of reference is provided by this model, but, as Scheerens (1990:65) points out, it is an 'economic

approach' to indications of school effectiveness. It is concerned with "which inputs lead to more output, also considering the costs of the inputs".

Figure 3. **Context-input-process-output-outcome model of governance** (after Scheerens, 1990)



This accountability orientation appears to be applicable to aspects of school self-evaluation at each level of performance. It may also have application to indicators of quality from policy making, although Scheerens (1990:71) stresses that organisational conditions "are thought of as more indirect conditions of educational achievement" than the more direct instructional processes that are determinants of school learning and achievement. Scheerens' model will be utilised to allow for value judgements about policies made in the case studies of governance described in Section 4.

Another approach to measurement is that of Dror (1973). Among the seven criteria which Dror employs to arrive at standards of quality, two of the most common will be utilised through the fieldwork to assess a trend in devolution: comparisons with past achievements or comparisons with those of other systems. A third method, attainment of target, may satisfy the goals of individual planned programs. This might be applied to aspects of the work of governing bodies. Judgement by professionals alone, frequently used as a formal measure, particularly in the past, is a fourth method of assessment. It seems inappropriate here in view of the endeavour to involve community lay persons in evaluation. Neither is optimum quality, the highest possible according to Dror (1973:67), easy to attain conclusively as so many are involved in the judgement. It would appear impossible to satisfy all the constituents, few of whom would be likely to settle for the sixth criterion - survival quality - either. This is the measure which Dror (1973:64) sees as the minimum needed for survival of any process. This leaves a seventh standard - desired quality - as a criterion which could be used as a benchmark in measuring outcomes of quality in learning institutions.

What might that 'desired quality' be? Is it the level of process and product to which a particular community, whether of a country, a State, a District or an individual institution, aspires? If so, is it the possible and preferred option by which to gauge effective products from processes in which a community is engaged? The notion of desired quality correlates with Scheerens' proposition that process indicators derive their value from relationship with output indicators.

The measures projected by Dror (1973) and Scheerens (1990) offer scope for developing performance indicators. Adaptation of them will be utilised to address the concern of this study to find outcomes of quality from policy making in which local community participants have been engaged.

Key findings from the literature reviewed

In following the sequence of the conceptual framework devised for this study, constituents apparently related to the five major topics to be investigated - educational administration, devolution, institutional quality, participatory governance and policy outcomes - have been identified in this chapter. Their significance has been substantiated by the relevant literature. Questions which appear to be important have been posed. Answers to them will form the substance of the research.

A rationale for decentralisation of decision making appears to vary in locations, but some common themes emerge. One is the scope envisaged for devolution. Legal and central authority regulations appear to give effect to a devolutionary trend in decision making. Major reports by educationists and non educationists alike have been in evidence (Hughes, 1968, 1973; Taylor, 1977; Scott, 1986; Picot, 1988). They shed different lights on the degree of acceleration of decentralisation in different places. Some educationalists see periodic cessation, even regression, of the trend towards community participation in school management (Baron, 1981). Some advise school-site governance as the most efficacious way to change and restructure educational administration (Walberg *et al.* 1988).

What is the reality? In this study, observation in a variety of locations is projected to find ubiquitous and unique characteristics of devolution so that case studies of practice of school government can be assessed in a contemporary context. Blueprints from England (Coopers & Lybrand, 1988) and New Zealand (Picot,1988) have shown ways by which the potential of local communities could be utilised when responsibility for administration is decentralised.

A taxonomic definition of the function of administration differentiates policy making from policy implementation in organisations (Hodgkinson, 1981). This appears to have application for school governance. So, too, has a postulation about values pervading the process (Hodgkinson, 1983). The personal basis of knowledge and perception is expected to feature strongly in investigating the organisation of schooling.

Governance of schools has been reviewed from different standpoints; as a form of sub-government (Hughes *et al.* , 1985), as a traditional arrangement in non-government schools (Hansen, 1971; Hogg, 1986), as a possibility for public systems (Caldwell & Spinks,

1988), and as idiosyncratic exemplification of meeting local needs (Walberg *et al.*, 1988; Caldwell & Spinks, 1988). Findings which point to an effective model of school-site government are being sought from this inquiry.

The focal concern of governance to make policy has been discussed. Practical details implicit in the process have been outlined (Caldwell & Tymko, 1980), as well as the necessary philosophical approach before policy is adopted and disseminated (Hodgkinson, 1983). Categorisation of business about which policy must be made has been suggested (Macbeth *et al.*, 1980). Standards for administrative procedure have been indicated that may provide suitable benchmarks to assess efficient policy making during case studies of governance (Dror, 1976; Scheerens, 1990).

The role of policy makers on governing bodies, as distinct from former bureaucratic performance by central officers, has been explicated (Kimpston & Rogers, 1988). The skills, attitudes and motivations demanded of participants in governance; the collaboration needed; and a potential for conflict are areas that have been opened up by researchers and others into decision making for education (Gross *et al.*, 1966; Auld, 1976; Smyre, 1987). Their findings may signal contingencies which will become apparent during the inquiry.

The apparently contending claims of professional educators and lay persons implicated in participatory governance of schools have been described from many viewpoints expressed in literature over recent years. These opinions indicate that the relationship of one to the other is in critical contention when a coalition, such as school-site government in which there is broad community participation, is projected. The far-reaching implications of zonal influences for attainment of objectives of decentralisation have to be discerned during fieldwork.

A strong suggestion comes through the literature on exemplary schools (Goodlad, 1984; Austin & Garber, 1985; Chrispeels & Pollack, 1990) that formal community participation in their delivery of education has impact on the quality of outcomes for students. At this point in the thesis, educational quality, and ways of measuring it, have been outlined only. Further attention to this critical but elusive phenomenon will be given in Section 3. It is anticipated that the reason for this will become clearer when decentralisation, its patterns, processes, and politics have been analysed and put into a context from which practical aspects of quality may be deduced. Application of the notion of educational quality to three case studies (Section 4) should then lead to identifying indicators of quality from outcomes that may be attributed to practice of school governance (Section 5).

Theory and research findings discussed in the course of this chapter have been intended to substantiate the main constructs of this study. It has not been an exhaustive list of works, there will be further references made as they appear appropriate in the course of the study. There will be a particular emphasis on educational quality resulting from schooling. Theory underpinning the methodology will be reviewed in the next chapter.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The first two chapters of this thesis have discussed dimensions of the problem to be studied and some theories and research findings about it. This chapter describes methods designed to inquire into participatory governance to arrive at some justifiable conclusions about the efficacy of this type of school administration.

A foremost concern of any research project has to be a search for reality and truth. A basic consideration for the methodology for this study is that search, together with a search for meaning and relationships in the constituents to be investigated. These objectives are explored in the first part of this chapter. Following this exercise, a design for the study of governance is depicted in a model showing locations and directions for the inquiry phase of the research. Then sampling parameters and a timetable for the study are given and significant persons and procedures are identified. The fieldwork to be undertaken is indicated in some detail. Analytical perspectives are forecast before summarising the methodology, its theoretical basis, and listing key points for inquiry.

Design considerations for the research

Participatory governance of schools appears to be a democratic process. Since democracy is "a way of getting things done, a way of arriving at decisions, and by its very nature has 'accountability' built in" (Hughes *et al.*, 1985: 414), it falls into a domain continually monitored by media and surveyed by opinion polls. It is possible that research instruments, however carefully devised, can degenerate into being merely a source of interesting but unresolved debate. Facile, mechanical opinionnaires are inappropriate for any serious search for meaning about how a section of the public perceives educational quality in their institution. As Deutscher (1973: 14) warns, in research "it is impossible to make direct comparison between the reactions secured through questionnaires and from actual experience". In this study, the actual experience of school governance is personal and it leads to the hypothesis that there is in this process of educational administration the potential to make a substantial contribution to outcomes of quality in schools. Clearly, this is a consumer type of problem. How to gain verifiable findings about this has motivated inquiry in localities where school governance is practised. The objective is to obtain knowledge from the informative responses of educational administrators, and those affected by their activities. Analyses of the data obtained by the methodology for this study should demonstrate the potential of participatory governance of schools. A choice has to be made about the instruments that may be utilised to obtain reliable findings.

To devise a blueprint for research which aims to find resolution of a problem in this area of consumerism immediately presents as an underlying quest for truth and reality. Research in the social sciences is guided by the quest for objective knowledge. Popper (1972: 9) advocated an objective theory of essentially conjectural knowledge when he said "we must regard all laws or theories as hypothetical or conjectural; that is as guesses". This appears to reject scientific or quantitative approaches to findings about social issues such as the human affair which is administration of education. Popper gave two sides to the phenomenon of human knowledge, the subjectivist commonsense theory of those philosophers from Aristotle to Descartes, Locke and Hume and, as an alternative, his own objectivist commonsense realism solution to the problem of absolute reliance on theory. Popper (1972:12) gave the principle of empiricism, 'experience', as a way for confirming truth or falsity of factual statements. Although Popper (1972:29) made the statement that "all theories are hypotheses; all may be overthrown", he acknowledged the appeal of the idea of truth and testing for it. Popper (1972:61) criticised the Commonsense Theory of Knowledge on the grounds that it is presupposes an 'empty bucket' state of thinking about knowledge beginning from nothing, whereas he proposes that the growth of knowledge consists of modifications of previous learning, together with inborn dispositions, in the hope of approaching true knowledge.

Deutscher (1973:41) corroborates the findings of Popper (1972) in saying "All knowledge, whether scientific or not, is cumulative and all men who think or write stand on the shoulders of those who have thought or written before". The emphasis to this point is on the search for truth, a first consideration when it comes to research design. In his observations on study design, Stouffer (1950:355) gave as a basic problem the "embedded thoughtways of our culture". He added that there is an implicit assumption that "anybody with a little commonsense and a few facts can come up at once with the correct answer on any subject". This has relevance for a study, such as this one, which relies in great part on answers from informants as evidence for its findings. It has been noted that there is a prevalence towards quick and easy answers to questions as put in such a survey devices as opinion polls, even in some research questionnaires. Although polls, opinionnaires, and questionnaires may appear to have commonsense and factual answers, the methodology for this governance study avoids any quantitative findings which neatly categorise views and perceptions. The premise for this rationale is a conviction that the problem to be investigated is about what people say about education being congruent with what, given the opportunity, they do about it. Consequently, to obtain data, the design for this research project relies on face-to-face information, personal observations, participant observation. While the general hypothesis of this study is that local community participation is effective for enhancing educational quality in a school, a consideration for the methodology is how to ascertain that this is so, given the difficulty of searching for reliable information from respondents.

Deutscher (1973:42) warns that the phenomena about which knowledge is sought may become obscured if the relationship between words and deeds is neglected. In the case of this research, that can be translated as finding the significance in, and also the difference between, the spoken responses of informants to the inquiry being undertaken, and actions evident from their policy making when engaged in the process of school governance. Therefore, the study design must take full account of both words and deeds in searching for truth by questioning, seeking for relevant information, and observing the reality of what is done in the circumstances.

In seeking meaning and reality, the problem of language arises. When human beings communicate, they must agree somehow on the rules of language they will follow. Lincoln & Guba (1985:31) explain a dichotomy in communication as "my considerable view of your reality is very different . . . from our considered view of our reality". Even experiential knowledge of a person or thing through sustained encounter has to be examined in the light of the multiple interpretations of reality encountered in any situation.

The problem of 'reality', as Ford (1975;2) points out, is that there is no single solution to it that has been found to be universally acceptable. She asks, "What is really real?", and answers it by giving four different senses in which a judgement may be said to be true. Truth1 is established by testing against observations. Truth2 is that uttered sincerely. Truth3 can 'be proved logically valid. Truth4 has the strength of people's faith in it. In summarising reality, Ford (1975:90) says that whatever is believed is taken to be true. While Popper (1972:25) may not "believe in belief", Ford 1(1975:98) cites Popper's insistence that in order to prove a theory, it must be capable of being disproved. Hence there can be few absolutes about research findings. Ford (1975:92) feels that the methods and techniques of science are devices for making decisions about Truth. The force of emotional tactics embodied in the other three versions of truth cannot be denied, but she agrees that there is a preference to be "reasoned into truth". Ford's (1975:428) conclusion is that, through the use or abuse of the rituals of science (doing research/offering evidence) "we can produce impressive judgements about what seem to be other people's realities". But, she adds, "the burden of honesty with respect to such judgements is colossal". While the research design of this study is driven by a basic search for truth, reality and honesty in the responses gathered from appropriate personnel in communities, complex, indeterminate and perspective ways of thinking will be assumed as the reality. Findings are expected to contribute essentially conjectural knowledge.

Added to the analysis of respondents' contributions will be the researcher's observations of the contexts and activities in which communities operate. Again, awareness of all four 'truths' - observation, sincerity, logic, and belief - to which Ford subscribes, will be maintained throughout the inquiry as a thread woven into the evidential material. The objective of the investigation is to uncover knowledge about enhancing the quality of education as the outcome of deliberations in which communities are engaged.

Each of these exercises presupposes either explicit or implicit expression of values; whether of the kind 'expressing value discontent. . . [about] quality of education', (OECD Report, 1983), or the spectrum of values which pervade human activities, as determined in Hodgkinson's typology. Lincoln & Guba (1985:9) note that inquiry, too, "is inevitably value determined". They contrast positivist and naturalist axioms (Table 3) .

Table 3. **Contrasting Positivist and Naturalist Axioms** (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:37)

Axioms about	**Positivist Paradigm**	**Naturalist Paradigm**
The nature of reality	Reality is single, tangible and fragmentable	Realities are multiple constructed, and holistic
The relationship of knower to the known	Knower and known are independent: a dualism	Knower and known are interactive, inseparable
The possibility of generalisation	Time - and context-free generalisations are possible	Only time- and context-bound working hypotheses are possible
The possibility of causal linkages	There are real causes temporarily precedent to or simultaneous with their effects	All entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping so it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects
The role of values	Inquiry is value-free	Inquiry is value-bound

These axioms appear to fit with the methodological considerations of this study. As basic beliefs, these form the basis for a new paradigm which Lincoln & Guba (1985:52) find emerging from a previously dominant positivistic patterns of thought. They state seven basic beliefs (based on Schwartz & Ogilvy, 1979:13) to show the change from the dominant to the emergent naturalist paradigm. These include a shift from simplistic to complex, from hierarchy to heterarchy, from determinate to indeterminate, from objective to perspective ways of thinking. Most items in the naturalist paradigm correlate with Popper's philosophy, although Popper (1972:25) states categorically, "I do not believe in belief!" Determination of values has been typified comprehensively by Hodgkinson (1981, 1983) showing their pervasive nature in psychological and philosophical ways in all human interactions. Hodgkinson (1983:92) finds that "Type I values are the fundament of all ideologies, sacred and secular. They are the values ... invested with a quality of belief" .

The philosophical and psychological bases of research in social sciences are fundamental preliminaries to research design. There are also anthropological considerations for inquiry into a problem, in particular the ethnographical one of what the people do when constructing their reality. Geertz (1973:10) finds that people's behaviour is symbolic action shaped by their culture. Geertz (1973:5) advises that "if you want to

understand what a science is, you should look in the first instance not at its theories or its findings, and certainly not at what its apologists say about it, you should look at what the practitioners of it do". Geertz (1973:14) says that culture is "context in which social events, behaviours, institutions, or processes can be intelligibly that is, thickly described". What Geertz has to say has significance for a study which is concerned with those elements of culture. His advice that research analysis should penetrate into the very body of the object of inquiry by beginning with personal interpretations of what the informants to the inquiry are up to, or think they are up to, and then systematise the findings (Geertz, 1973:15). This is a valuable dictum. It has been heeded in this study to the extent of "what the practitioners of it do" on governing bodies has been the previous and current experience of the researcher in Hobart, Tasmania. In addition, a short pilot study of a self managing institution (Rosebery District High School, Tasmania) was undertaken before the main research project began. These activities were the foundation upon which to construct the methodology for the main study.

Cultural analysis, according to Geertz (1973:20) is "guessing at meanings, assessing the guesses and drawing explanatory conclusions from the better guesses". This bears out Popper's theory of conjectural knowledge. These considerations seem to fit with methods for the qualitative data collection and analysis of Miles & Huberman (1984) by which they advise drawing conclusions, testing them care fully, and providing other researchers with some useful generalisable knowledge.

Design for a study of governance

There is need for cultural theory to "stay rather closer to the ground than tends to be the case" (Geertz, 1973:24). A strategy for qualitative research referred to by Geertz (1973), Miles & Huberman (1984) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) is the grounded theory of sociologists, Glaser & Strauss (1967). The argument of Glaser & Strauss (1967:1) for grounding theory in social research itself and for generalising from the data, thereby generating theory, was that it provides relevant predictions, explanations, interpretations and applications. Their position has been described as 'phenomenological'. It would appear to be a useful one to consider when studying people engaged in decision making which vitally affects them. As Glaser & Strauss (1967:30) affirm, "a single case can indicate a general conceptual category or property, a few more cases can confirm the indication". The rationale for qualitative method given by Glaser & Strauss (1967:40) is quoted in the following as an underlying rationale for the design of methodology for this study:

> In the beginning, one's hypotheses may seem unrelated, but as categories and properties emerge, develop in abstraction, and become related, their accumulating interrelations form an integrated central theoretical framework, the core of emerging theory. It becomes a guide to further collection and analysis of data.

A methodology based on 'grounded theory' requires much of the researcher. As Glaser & Strauss (1967:252) emphasised, reliance is placed on the "personal experience, insight and sensitivity of the researcher". To generate substantive theory, grounded data have to be collected by the inquirer who is already versed in relevant theory. 'Naturalistic' is the term Lincoln & Guba (1985:187) give to empirical approaches that put queries to Nature and let Nature answer. They accentuate the trustworthiness required of the researcher in saying "such a study demands a human instrument adaptive to the indeterminate situation to be encountered". Lincoln & Guba (1985:192) require that the human as instrument in naturalistic studies should engage in prolonged and persistent observation of the characteristics of the indigenous personnel. As Lincoln & Guba (1985:304) write "If prolonged engagement provides scope, persistent observation provides depth". Hence the researcher's concern with scope and depth in this study.

Sampling parameters

In bounding the collection of data, the parameters should encompass not only the population but cultural congruities. Miles & Huberman (1984: 41) advise that the initial choice may not prove to be "the most pertinent or data-rich". The guiding criterion initially was that localities for investigation should be congruent with the focus of the study in Hobart, Tasmania.

Hobart is a coastal city which has the usual provision in developed countries for public and private systems of education, including a university. Its population is 127,140 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1991 census, first counts). Three school sites in that location will be the focus for what is termed 'micro level inquiry' in this study.

Although the micro level is the quarry of the inquiry, the intention is to investigate a much broader scenario and, thereby, to gain understanding of major factors in decentralised educational administration. To preserve links between the focal locality and wider contexts, both within and outside Australia, the choice of locations has been bounded by countries sharing a similar British heritage to that of Australia. Devolution of decision making will be observed in three States of Australia; Tasmania, Victoria and New South Wales. These come onto the category termed the 'meso level' of inquiry. But, first, the 'macro level' of inquiry will be undertaken in New Zealand, Canada, England, Ireland (Eire), Scotland, and the United States.

The nature of the shared heritage is discussed in Chapter 4 as a prologue to undertaking the macro and meso levels of inquiry. At this point in bounding the study, it may be appropriate to provide some preliminary explanation of cultural and demographic links. The reason for extrapolating on this issue when explaining the methodology is articulated well by anthropologist, Clifford Geertz (1973: 313) - "how to frame an analysis of meaning, the conceptual structures individuals use to construe experience, which will be at once circumstantial enough to carry conviction and abstract enough to forward theory".

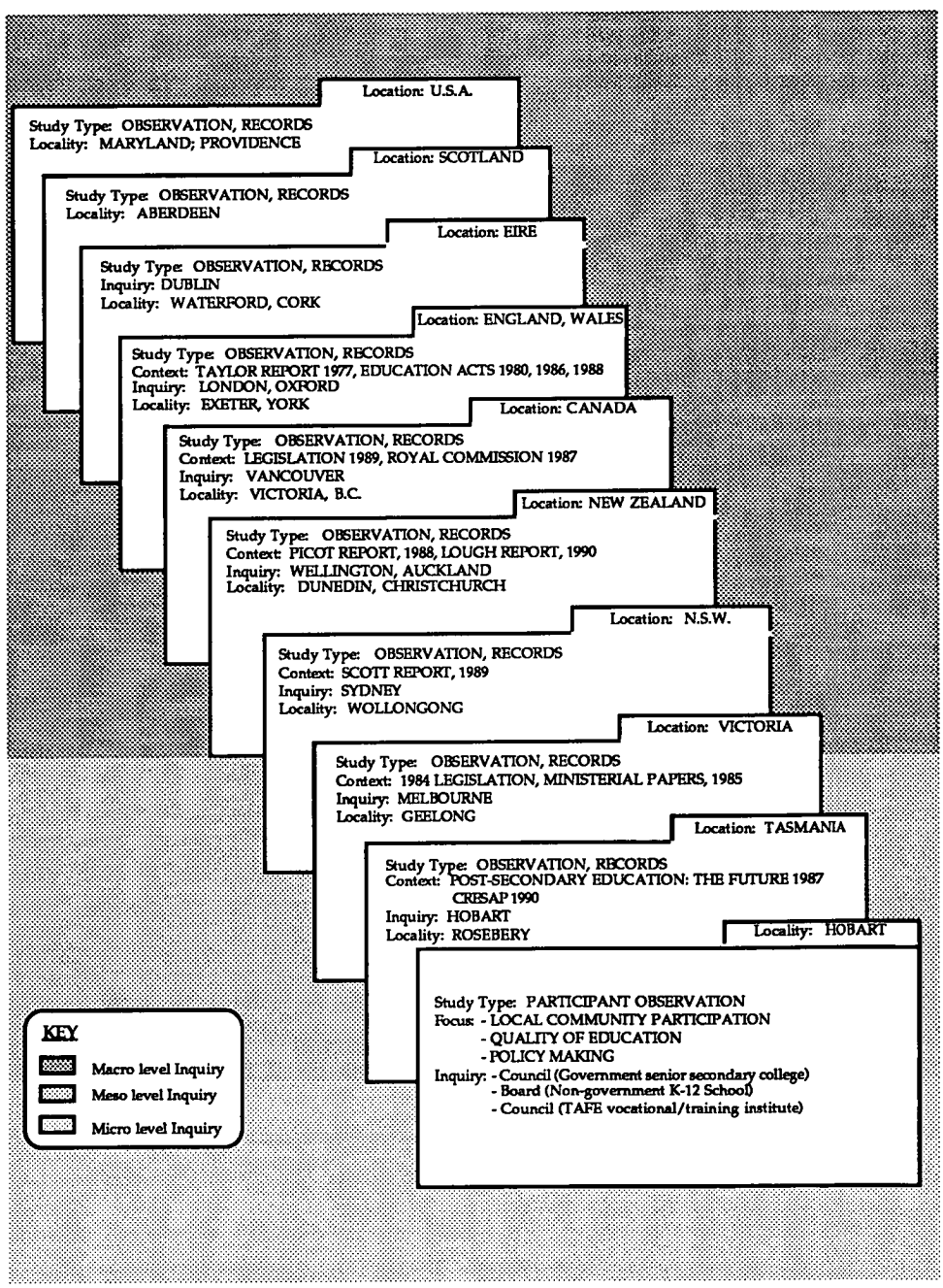
Although Indonesia was his research setting, Geertz gives his goal as understanding how it is that every people gets the politics it imagines. The structures of meaning through which people give shape to their experience comes under the term 'culture', according to Geertz (1973: 312), who goes on to define politics as "one of the principal areas in which such structures publicly unfold." All the locations chosen have democratic governments which owe much to the Westminster system from which they derived. Cultural elements may also be regarded as similar in these chosen locations. However, both culture and politics can still be both situationally unique and ubiquitous. Deal & Kennedy (1982:4) define culture as "the integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action, and artefacts and depends on man's capacity to learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations". This quotation incorporates a definition of education, too. Arrangements for educational administration are political activities, for, as Beare *et al.* (1989:35) affirm, "policy by its very nature is political".

Research into people's experience and behaviour is bound to have political and cultural overtones. Geertz (1973:312) warns that attempts to find cultural conceptions displayed in particular social contexts may be merely evocative, a collection of anecdotes. To avoid such 'perfected impressionism', Geertz advises researchers to build a theoretical scaffold at the same time as analysis is conducted. The goal of this present study is to link the specific structures of school governance in one locality into a general trend from a wider spatial sphere. In other words, again those of Geertz (1973:22), "the locus of the study is not the object of the study". In his case, as in the objective of this study, it is a part of a wider social universe.

The debate sparked by Greenfield (1978:97), who maintained that the uniqueness of time and place overrides theory which "usually oversimplifies the variety and complexity of human experience within organisations", has significance for this study's temporal and spatial boundaries. Consideration of both concepts is integral to the methodology. The links between society, space and locality are discussed by Urry (1987:443), who finds that part of the culture of those living in any defined geographical area is the distinction drawn between those who are 'local, people like us' and those who are 'outsiders'. Local and locality are ambiguous terms, says Urry (1987:435), because they refer to two related processes social and spatial. In saying this, he notes that "some national or international process takes a particular form in a certain locality". Urry (1987:443) is firmly of the view that local effects are wider in scope than this :"There is a wide variety of local effects which are in part dependent upon the interconnectedness between the national and international and the local". Urry views locality as "going together with that of nation". In short, policy making in microcosm can be seen to link to a larger cultural and spatial whole.

A model for a school governance study (Figure 3) has been designed illustrating the sequence of inquiry in the manner of a card index. It depicts the three stages of inquiry - macro, meso and micro - to portray how the research noted on each location's 'card' relates to the whole study. Its design may prove to have replicability for other researchers in that any additional relevant location could be inserted to gauge the interconnectedness of a larger cultural and spatial scene.

Figure 3. A Model for School Governance



At the macro and meso levels of inquiry, the model shows that educational administration in some central locations - Melbourne, Sydney, Wellington, Auckland, Vancouver, Oxford, Dublin - will be observed and recorded. Within those nine locations, informants in specified localities which are congruent with Hobart - Geelong, Wollongong, Dunedin, Christchurch, Victoria (British Columbia), Providence (Rhode Island), Exeter, York, Cork, Waterford, and Aberdeen - will be interviewed regarding school governance. The locality of Hobart is the focus of the study. Another research project might engage the appropriate locality at this point.

In the model, the context of particular locations is identified in terms of some legislation and/or major educational reports pertinent to them. These are amplified and described in greater detail in the course of the Case Records (Section 2).

Timetable for the study

The duration of the study covered four years. In the first year, the field of interest was established. A literature review of the relevant background theory was followed by review of focal theory as the topic for research and the methodology were developed. A proposal for the thesis was then written. A pilot study of school-site governance was undertaken at Rosebery District High School. This was intended to broaden personal perspectives of Tasmanian practice of governance in learning institutions.

The second year of the study began by preparing the fieldwork guidelines and arranging the research itinerary. Data collection, with concurrent analysis, occupied four months at the macro level of international inquiry. Later that year, another month was spent at the meso level of inquiry within Australia. The evidence from these investigations was then written up in the form of Case Records for each location. During this time, correspondence with informants followed up leads presented during the fieldwork. Further related literature was reviewed.

The third year commenced with conclusive analysis of data already collected. The key issues that were identified provided a basis for the micro level inquiry which was to be the focus of the study. Details of the participant observation phase and the requisite protocol were worked through. After the six-month investigation was completed, interviews with members of the three governing bodies took place. Finally, the Case Studies were drafted and submitted to relevant "gatekeepers" for verification. From analysis of all the evidence, conclusions were reached.

Drafts of the thesis were prepared during the fourth year. Considerable reflection on the study occurred before the final version was completed.

Data collection: population sample

Even with a guiding principle of searching for truth, it is apparent that the selection of informants from which data will be collected inevitably influences the outcomes gained from analysis. Thus careful consideration of the local community population is required to select those respondents who may contribute most, while still being a representative sample.

At the outset of the inquiry, the specification of persons perceived to be relevant to the inquiry was identified as follows:

- laypersons who become members of governing bodies;
- laypersons in associated fields of public service, eg. health workers;
- professional educators: principals, teacher representatives on governing bodies;
- professional bureaucrats: departmental officials responsible for the educational administration of systems;
- professional educationists/educationalists in higher education institutions;
- associated people: members of groups such as Parents and Friends, Staff Clubs, Teacher Unions, professional networks (eg. National Council of Independent Schools, Australian College of Education, Australian Council of State Schools Parents & Friends); and
- student representatives.

During the study, attention has been paid to media commentators. Austin & Garber (1985:209) acknowledge that their research into exemplary schools shows that "educational researchers can benefit fairly directly sometimes from journalistic products". This seems justified as the problem to be investigated is concerned with issues of public interest.

The above indications of representativeness come from the Australian context. Comparable populations in other countries may have other designations or nomenclatures. The expectation is that data collection will occur among a similar group to those designated above. There exists the possibility that the fieldwork, which looks at different places, phenomena, and people, may find less in common than expected but the sample of sites should ensure a degree of commonality through the shared heritage, geographic and demographic congruity. From the beginning, it is recognised that the across site nature of the international inquiry may be expected to present further problems of localised cultural differences. These will be taken into account at the appropriate time.

The sample specified at the pre-data collection point was flexible, allowing for adjustment as data-collection proceeded. This adaptive method of procedure is strongly advocated by Glaser & Strauss (1967), Bogdan & Taylor (1984), Miles & Huberman (1984), and Lincoln & Guba (1985). Nevertheless, the preliminary sample noted above still required imposition of further limitations, because, as Miles & Huberman (1984:36) observe, "one cannot study everyone everywhere doing everything". They add, however, that "qualitative samples tend to be more purposive than random" as their universe is more

limited and social processes, as in this instance, have a logic and coherence anyway. The choice of key informants has been regarded as critical because, according to Bogdan & Taylor (1984:41), "the right one may make or break a study".

Identification of key personnel

The number of interviewees for any inquiry has to be sufficiently large to minimise sampling error (Long, Convey & Chwalk, 1986:87). For research purposes, the number of informants should provide as wide a spread of data in terms of human response as might indicate 'saturation' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:61) or 'redundancy' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:199); that is a position where no additional data obtained from respondents would add to what has been collected already. This objective may prove difficult to achieve in view of having only on pass at the macro and meso level locations. Again, it is emphasised, the judgement of the researcher is crucial.

At the macro and meso levels of inquiry, initial choice of informants has been based on the researcher's experience, in addition to reliance on theory. The prestige and status factors identified by Gross, Mason & McEachern (1966) and Louis & Dentler (1988) indicate that the views and work of the chief executives - chairpersons of governing bodies and school principals - always should be sought. On each school site, laypersons, professionals and, where applicable, student representatives on the governing body will be consulted. Identification of those who may be 'change agents' in communities will be made: former governors, pressure group leaders, and activist parents. This advice of Miles & Huberman (1984:41) will be borne in mind: "If you are talking with one kind of informant, you need to consider why this kind of informant is important and, from there which other people should be interviewed". It is a good, bias controlling exercise.

To avoid bias and to gain as much information as possible, other informants in learning institutions will be sought. Contributions will be elicited from teachers who implement policy, administrators such as bursars or business managers, non teaching members of staff, and students where appropriate. The views of people associated with the institution, but not involved in school governance, will be ascertained informally. Heed will be paid, on the advice of Miles & Huberman (1984:42), to "people no longer actively involved, to dissidents and renegades and eccentrics". Opportunities to explore atypical and idiosyncratic responses, as Lincoln & Guba (1985:194) suggest, should be taken.

Presentation format: Case Records, Case Studies

Although knowledge and information have different connotations there is a sense in which knowledge is a person's intrinsic information and, as such, is one of the quarries of this quest. The other is that of what is observed by the human as instrument. Again, this

implies an individual's view of reality and truth. Methods of systematising the information gained by the researcher are reports recorded on location, and case studies in one locality. For naturalistic inquirers, Lincoln & Guba (1985:357) give the report mode of choice as the case study. To differentiate between reports of observations made in the wider scene and the more localised participant observations, Case Studies will detail findings of the latter and Case Records will describe the former. Both case studies derived from participant observation and cases recorded from observations undertaken, are considered by the researcher to be appropriate vehicles in which to employ Geetz's 'thick description'.

The case study format has been employed by Kogan *et al.* (1984:181) and Goulding *et al.* (1984). In the latter collection, the methodology devised by Ebbutt (1984) for his case study of the relationship between a school and its governing body would appear to be congruent with that of this present study. Ebbutt (1984:35) admits choosing which extract to include, or whose view persuades the researcher, is difficult to make. He acknowledges that, in his intention to write a descriptive portrayal, he failed to add a section for conclusions and recommendations. These are helpful reminders. His prescription for the interview method is persuasive, although his use of tape recorded interviews will not be followed in this study. Ebbutt presented the script of any interview he decided to use in his report to the interviewee for checking and for permission to quote. A procedural code was used in the Cambridge Accountability Project (1981) in which Ebbutt was one of the researchers. This points to the necessity to have procedures worked out in advance, including explanatory documentation, and to make all participants in the chosen sites fully aware by seeking the necessary permission and information.

Protocol and procedure

This brings into contention the element of ethics in research. Before the macro and meso level inquiry, letters of introduction were exchanged prior to arranging visits to make observations (see Appendix 2·1 - 2·3). Only that observational material has been used for which permission had been obtained. In each case, written acknowledgment of informative contribution was made following formal interviews.

At the micro level, additional proprieties were observed before undertaking participant observation of the three learning institutions (see Appendix 2·4 - 2·7). In each case, permission was requested of the Principal and the Chairman of the governing body to conduct research. An outline of the study was given (see Appendix 2·8). Once permission was granted, the governing body was informed (see Appendix 2·9) of what inquiry would entail for meetings during the following six months. At the end of that period, the governors were 'debriefed'. At that final session, they completed a rating scale on perceptions of their performance of governance (see Appendix 4). Individual members also agreed to keep an

account of the time they spent on business connected with their being in membership of the governing body over a period of one year (see Appendix 5).

Fieldwork guidelines

In a largely descriptive study which, nevertheless, includes relatively focussed research questions and initially identified populations, settings, and processes, the data gathering devices for observing and recording have been set out formally in Fieldwork Guidelines (see Appendix 3). Instruments regarded as capable of validating information have been chosen. Validity, according to Lincoln & Guba (1985:189), is a conventional criteria analogous to which they put forward "credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability". Verifiable content will be indicated by the inclusion of a wide spectrum of material derived from international, national and local sources. This allows for the saturation called for by Glaser & Strauss (1967), or the redundancy stipulated by Lincoln & Guba (1985).

The instrumentation adopted in this study has been modified or extended as new leads appeared but it relies throughout on the already noted protagonist, 'human as instrument'. This is reinforced by Miles & Huberman's contention that (1984:46): "qualitative research issues of instrument validity and reliability ride largely on the skills of the researcher". Corroborative comments by Evans (1988:197) clearly identify how social research depends on the researcher as research tool - "a profound level of introspection in the part of the researcher with respect to his or her relationship to what is to be (and is being) researched". This confirms the "intelligent self-direction" called for in the naturalistic research model (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:30).

The aim of this inquiry is not to reach absolute answers. The alleged devolutionary trend appears to be too fluid a phenomenon for such affirmations, Understanding is sought of the potential of local communities to self-govern schools. The type of instrumentation to be used is set out in the guidelines for fieldwork under headings: methodical devices, interviews, participant observation, document analysis, and other measures. During the data collection phase, the Fieldwork Guidelines (see Appendix 3) have been utilised for concurrent and conclusive analyses. In detailing the elements of the instrumentation planned for this fieldwork, a search for meaning, honesty, reality and truth is again emphasised. Words, spoken, written or read, are essential to the findings in this study, so it is to language itself that attention has been drawn from the beginning of the study. The work of Deutscher (1973) has been mentioned, his warning that nuances of language peculiar to groups and understood exclusively by them may compound problems of seeking meaning, has been heeded.

1. Fieldwork: methodical devices

According to Miles & Huberman (1984:49) "the ideal model for data collection and analysis is one that interweaves them [data and analysis] from the beginning". To do this, they

suggest devising proformas to assist in this process. Several of their ideas proved useful with respect to categorising and summarising information. Contents of the Fieldwork Guidelines (see Appendix 3) included:

Guidelines for the inquiry at macro, meso and micro levels (Appendix 3.1);

Checklist of actions to be taken for investigation in locations (Appendix 3.2.1; 3.2.2; 3.2.3);

Interview questions (general, specific and key questions) at each level (Appendix 3.5.1; 3.5.2; 3.5.3);

Observation pro forma (Appendix 3.6.1; 3.6.2; 3.6.3); and

Forms, including Document Summary, Site Summary, Site Analysis, and Contact (Appendix 3.7.1,3.7.2, 3.7.3, 3.7.4.).

Space was allocated in the Fieldwork Guidelines for vital research reminders, a personal audit trail and memo (ideas about events, processes and outcomes) to be kept during the inquiry (see Appendix 3.7.5). An interview schedule, addresses and phone numbers, and list of interviewees and institutions visited, completed the Fieldwork Guidelines.

2. Fieldwork: interviews

The role of the interviewer entails not merely obtaining answers, but determining questions to ask and how to ask them. Much has been written in social research literature about the value and techniques of interviewing; Douglas (1985) coined the phrase 'creative interviewing' which he attributes to the non-directive method of psychotherapist, Carl Rogers. Non-directive implies a mode of discourse that Rogers (1945: 279) developed. He claimed this was completely foreign to ordinary conversation in that the interviewer concentrates on the attitude expressed by the interviewee and reformulates it in fair and accurate terms so as to elicit further information in a bland, unbiased way. As identified by Douglas (1976: 57), there are four problems facing the field researcher when asking people what is going on in the way of social reality: misinformation, evasions, lies, and 'fronts'. He adds to this a list of problematic, taken for granted meanings, unintentional falsehoods, and self-deceptions as needing to be guarded against. Douglas (1985: 57) urges that interviewer adopt a 'low profile stance' and the subordinate role to the interviewee. His type of heuristic, creative, interview pays attention to non-verbal body language in the datum, for example, facial expression or use of hands when listening or speaking. Douglas (1985: 150) advises interviewers that human reality is generally complex and often protected by layers of what he calls 'presentational frontwork'. An opinion about the investigative methods of Douglas, given by Lincoln & Guba (1985: 257), refutes what they give as his assumption that "profound conflicts of interest, values, feelings and actions pervade social life" and that "conflict is the reality of life, suspicion is the guiding principle". Whichever is the correct interpretation, awareness of both views is borne in mind during interviews and in later reflective analysis of the data.

Another pioneer in interviewing techniques, Dexter (1970), opened up new ideas for scholarly analysis of interviews from an anthropological standpoint, which he defined as

elite and specialised interviewing. Dexter (1970:8) advocated concentration on "a few key informants". He suggested they "may help the investigator to acquire a better picture of the norms, attitudes, expectations and evaluations of a particular group" than less intensive interviews or observations. Identification of who key informants may be has been a continuing search during the inquiry.

'In-depth interviewing' (Bogdan & Taylor, 1984: 76) is a non-directive, unstructured, non-standardised, and open-ended technique with much to recommend it. It is borne in mind during the fieldwork.

In studying phenomena across sites, Yin (1982) prescribes a fieldwork guide which includes a list of prepared questions to be asked at interviews, while still allowing for individual discretion and adaptation. Such prestructuring for an interview is in the mould of a methodological instrument used by Gross *et al.* (1953), described as 'Eight Hour Interviews'. In their case, they found the relatively unstructured question approach failed to tap role conflict situations. They advised a combination of structured checklists, set questions and probes followed by an open ended series of questions, for successfully obtaining information from the daylong interviews with each respondent which were conducted. While interviews of that length are not envisaged, semi-structured interviews of the type devised by Yin (1982) and by Gross *et al.* (1953) are appropriate for this study. As a result, a set of interview questions for this study has been prepared (see Appendix 3.5.1 - 3.5.3).

The number of interviews to be undertaken in any one site was not decided at the outset. Lincoln & Guba (1985:235) suggest that a sample of a dozen or so, if properly selected, should probably exhaust most available information. Group interviews with a small number of respondents groups of teachers or parents or department officials also took place during the macro and meso levels of inquiry.

3. Fieldwork: participant observation

Deutscher (1973: 166) prefers participant observation to interviews because, in his opinion, a person may not tell the interviewer all that may wish to be known. As Becker (1958:652) explains "the participant observer gathers data by participating in the daily life of the group or organisation he studies". Evans (1988:204) defines participant observation as a "fluid process" involving changes in the researcher in the course of the research. As an instrument for use in this study, it is particularly appropriate because the experience of the researcher renders access to substantial data collection as a participant observer of school governance. Nevertheless, the warning of Lincoln & Guba (1985:256), that the presence of a participant observer may be dysfunctional to the performance of the body concerned, has been heeded. The data collected from the participant phase should produce, as Becker (1953:653) remarks, "an immense amount of detailed description". Its sequential nature fits with the qualitative method and allows for analysis of the data to proceed alongside

collection of further, possibly corroborative, evidence. The technique of participant observation is described in more detail in Chapter 10.

4. Fieldwork: document analysis

In every setting, it is likely that there exists unique documentation which should be scrutinised as part of the data collection and analysis. A selection from the following relevant documents was made at each site: reports, schedules , files, correspondence, contracts, memos, newspapers, official records, local media accounts, personal diaries, letters, policy papers and manuals, legal requirements, administration regulation, and handbooks.

5. Fieldwork: other measures

Fieldwork includes a number of other measures as well as those that described above. Correspondence was entered into to clarify items of information gleaned during the macro and meso levels of inquiry. As already stated, only one pass at most locations was possible.

At the start of the micro level inquiry, observation techniques adapted from those of Cartwright & Cartwright (1974) and Medinnus (1980) appeared to be useful for gaining information about the behaviour of individual participants at business meetings or interviews. Tone of voice, length of contributions to discussions, or interruptions to proceedings were listed for periodic checking. In the event, such measures proved cumbersome to administer and distracting from the actual business of policy formulation. It was decided to abandon them quite early in the participant observation phase, bearing in mind that the researcher both participated and observed.

A rating scale on semantic differential, as suggested by Neale *et al.* (1981:261), was devised to measure of how satisfactory, effective, improved, changed, influential, and decisive individual members perceived the performance of the governing body during the previous year (see Appendix 4). This proved to be informative, as is described in Chapter 12. Another survey (see Appendix 5) was conducted to ascertain the amount of time individuals estimated they gave to the business of the governing body in which they participated during a one year period.

Telephone interviews, recommended by Yin (1982:88) as a means of random survey to yield useful data for developing external validity, were undertaken on occasion. There were especially useful in verifying points from previous interviews, or for checking on items from business meetings. As with all the devices designated above, the advice of Miles & Huberman (1984:46) was followed: 'Instrumentation can be modified steadily to explore new leads'.

Analyses of data

The continuous reassessment, recycling and reiteration which is characteristic of naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:287) is utilised in the actual collection and analysis of data. The thick description (Geertz, 1973) of the Case Records and the Case Studies requires interpretation in terms of the contexts of place and time. Accommodation of reactions from 'gatekeepers' and interviewees has to be made. The triangulation method by which independent sources of information may be used to confirm one another is one solution to validity (Deutscher, 1973:109; Lincoln & Guba, 1985:281) is adopted in reflective analysis on findings from all three levels of inquiry. Data must be reduced in the way that Miles & Huberman (1984) indicate: select, focus, simplify, abstract, transfer raw data into discrete displays such as matrices, graphs, charts, tables, or networks. From displays of this nature, it is intended to draw and verify conclusions, to ascertain replicability, and to encapsulate conclusive analyses.

Two methodologies which offer precedents for making rational associations of pertinent factors are the 'tracer study' method advocated by Louis & Dentler (1988) and the 'chain of evidence' established by Yin (1982:91). In those ways, relationships can be assessed and conclusions drawn.

The 'tracer' methodology used by Louis & Dentler (1988:40) provides a possible design for use in this study which has aspects of some congruence with their study, although theirs was research on a much larger scale. 'Tracer study' accurately describes the type of investigation developed to take advantage of the simultaneity of several components of their study and to trace causes from effects. These causes are identified as events which occur, length of time on task, intensity of the issue, skills of participants in pursuance of such collaborative decision making as 'Long Range Planning' or 'Educational Renewal' in specific institutions. Louis & Dentler (1988) traced these elements by means of systematic sampling, field interviews, site visits, case reports, telephone surveys, comparative studies. All these methods are used in this study to greater or lesser extents. In the short article reporting on their large study of twelve cases, Louis & Dentler (1988:42) found a representative sample from "a lot of compelling qualitative findings". This is displayed, much in the manner of Miles & Huberman (1984). Variations on this methodology will be incorporated in the research design of this study. One of the conclusions reached by Louis & Dentler (1988:49) is that "the process of interacting with colleagues about information is a critical determinant of whether new information is used". This mirrors the methodology of this present study in adopting participant observation, and the subsequent checking and reflection with relevant protagonists. Another conclusion, concerning the diffusion of information, is that there is an association between the positions on status hierarchy of educational agents and dissemination behaviour, "information tends to move down the educational hierarchy" say Louis & Dentler (1988:54). This characteristic is explored.

Louis & Dentler (1988:58) warn that attempts to change schools cannot succeed where the characteristics of teachers and schools are not taken into account. Therefore, in sampling school governance, inquiry is made into how those aspects that have been identified: time, management, local 'fit', social interaction, status, intensity of issue for the institution, school characteristics, skills of participants, use and dissemination of information, are evident in learning institutions. The study shares objectives with those of Louis & Dentler (1988) as it focuses on schools contending with internal and external pressures for planning improvement of educational quality.

In analysing the content, as Eyles (1988:340) indicates, "the aim is to draw large conclusions from small, but very densely textured, facts". Yin (198298) finds that investigation must answer four questions:

1. What are the possible relevant units of analysis?
2. What theoretical concerns, expressed as operationally as possible, have been covered by the study?
3. What are the sources of information and evidence that potentially can be used?
4. What types of within-case and across-case analyses exist?

In the process of answering of answering these questions the methodology needs to produce findings which have engaged these problems. This is intended to be done in the following manner.

1. Relevant units of analysis

These are expected to emerge as major factors from the observations recorded during the international and national inquiry. These will appear in Case Records (Section 2). In turn, those major factors observed will be interpreted as key issues to be investigated during the 'phase of participant observation of school governance. The results of that phase will be incorporated into three Case Studies (Section 4). Finally, reflective analysis derived inferentially from the cases recorded and studied is intended to give findings which demonstrate enhanced quality of education from decentralised decision making.

2. Theoretical concerns

Those to be covered are addressed by the research hypotheses and questions (Chapter 1). These are to be expressed as operational in the areas of:

- decentralisation in educational administration;
- devolutionary patterns, processes and politics;
- educational quality and its implications for administration of schools;
- performance, procedures and policies; and
- potential and influence of community participation in policy making.

3. Sources of information and evidence

Those which have been identified in the initial design for the governance study are selected personnel, selected locations, selected theory, and selected research findings. The chosen levels of inquiry macro, meso, and micro are expected to yield evidence which, by triangulation, will provide useful generalisable findings.

4. Existent types of within-case and across-case analyses

Some have been referred to in these first three chapters. Much of the literature that has been reviewed emanates from the United States. In particular, the qualitative data analysis of Miles & Huberman (1984) has been utilised. It underpins the methodology designed for this study which is in the naturalistic paradigm explicated in the course of this chapter. Using this inquiry method allows for development, during the course of the data collection, of leads which begin to appear critical to the issues of governance. Notable among these is expected to be a concept of educational quality. The methodology has been designed to be a flexible structure which will admit the emergence of issues during data collection and concurrent analysis.

Testing or confirming findings in the methodology has included looking for evidence of direction and authority in school governance and its support for the work of the institution it serves. Checking for representativeness by making comparisons and contrasts will require looking for negative evidence, too. For instance, at the micro level, observation of a comparable senior secondary college's governing body over a period of three months is intended to put the case study example into clearer perspective.

Not every relationship can be studied. Some will be discounted for which reasons will be offered.

A procedural form at has been worked out to guide the stages of analysis (see Appendix 6). It enables a checklist to be kept on the iterations and reflections necessary during qualitative analysis. It includes record sheets for the foreseen tasks of analysis at all three levels of inquiry. The utility of such procedures to the research project is not known at its outset but methods which provide a structure upon which to build credible, dependable, transferable and confirmable conclusions appear to be a constructive way forward.

Résumé of the methodology

School governance is a political affair. It operates within a culture, as Geertz (1973:311) points out. The politics of school government may be expected to reflect present culture, its consumerism and uncertainty, in a search for solutions to the problems of objective

knowledge about the quality of education and how it may be influenced by community participation in policy making.

Explanation of the methodology for qualitative data collection and analysis has been the subject of this chapter. Theoretical bases for constructs have been delineated. A change in society's view of publicly funded services, such as education, has been noted in the two previous chapters. A paradigm shift has also been evident in modes of research inquiry in the social sciences. The research is driven by a search for meaning in the evidence presented to the researcher from informants or from observations of events. The goal is to arrive at a paradigm of school governance in schools.

The methodology envisaged for the study allows for adaptability in the instrumentation prescribed for the fieldwork. Collection of data, and analysis concurrent with it, will precede the reflective analysis to arrive at conjectural findings.

Data are presented as a series of recorded cases from the international and national scene, and as a set of case studies from one locality in Tasmania. It is intended that the knowledge gained will be operationally grounded and lead to conjectural findings which may be regarded as reliable.

Key points to be addressed in the research inquiry are :

- what communities say about educational administration,
- what communities do about educational administration,
- what communities appear to believe about schooling,
- what communities value about education,
- what constitutes the reality of participatory governance,
- what ways local or national culture is demonstrated in public and private systems of education,
- where decentralisation of decision making is being practised effectively,
- which personnel are reliable informants about school governance, and
- what constitutes quality of education in a learning institution.

Summary of Section 1

This initial section of the study into governance has been concerned with the first of five stages illustrated in the conceptual framework (Figure 1). The pair of aligned hypotheses and research questions (H1Q1) which has addressed in the course of this section is that which sets the scene for decentralisation of educational administration and concomitant devolution of decision making. In this section, comprised of three chapters, the phenomenon of governance in learning institutions has been made known as the problem for inquiry. In this chapter, the methodology for the study has been explained. In the previous chapter, relevant literature on both background and focal theory has been reviewed. The first chapter introduced the study and its context. The second section of the thesis, which begins with Chapter 4, will be concerned with the research inquiry at international and national levels.

SECTION 2. Macro and meso level inquiry into patterns, processes and politics of decentralised educational administration

Chapter 4

Contextual Presuppositions

This first chapter of the second section forms an introduction to the macro and meso levels of inquiry in which the preliminary fieldwork for this study of governance is engaged. This section describes investigation into decentralised educational administration in international and national locations. To establish the parameters set for the study, presuppositions about the context are briefly explored in this chapter. These are the British heritage which Australia shares, indications of the British cultural pattern, and the demographic and geographical congruence there may be between the selected locations and localities. These presuppositions are expected to be among determinants of the patterns, processes and politics foreseen in the conceptual framework (Figure 1, page 12) as the second stage for this study.

The objective of the macro and meso level inquiry, set down in the second pair of hypotheses and questions (see Table 1, page 11), is to extricate major factors evident in decentralised administration so as to identify key issues for devolved decision making at the micro level. Investigation into educational administration in selected places is designed to discover patterns and processes which have led to acknowledged devolution. As democracy is driven by a political imperative, so the concerns of this study are inevitably meshed with political considerations. Understanding of specific issues underlying the organisation of education, those that emphasise democratic rather than bureaucratic procedures, is sought from the macro and meso levels of inquiry. The following two chapters record central and local findings in each location. Inferences from the broad scenario will be drawn at the end of this section (Chapter 7).

A global perspective on the trend to decentralise administrative functions is to be experienced by the researcher before concentrating on inquiry into actual practice of governing individual institutions in the location of Hobart, Tasmania. Data from sources in seven countries are intended to identify the structure of educational administration with particular reference to participation in it by local communities. Data are reported as Case Records. These are founded on a theoretical framework of knowledge pertinent to particular places gained from a literature review. They are compiled from observations undertaken, and information gained, on location. They are intended to illustrate the commonalities and the divergences in educational administration pertaining to countries or states listed in the Model for a School Governance Study (see Figure 3, page 42).

In this chapter, the significance that historical and cultural connections may have is examined so that boundaries for this study can be established. There is an underlying contention that the patterns and processes of any form of organisation are not created suddenly in a vacuum but are embedded in a deep and meaningful way in the polity of particular places. This is taken to be valid especially in administration of education, perhaps because it is so intimately linked to the values people hold not only about themselves in society but particularly about their progeny. Some explication of these historical and cultural factors is required to understand the uniqueness of particular settings and the ubiquity of the contemporary scene in educational administration.

The seven different, but linked, countries - Australia, New Zealand, Canada, England, Ireland, Scotland, and the United States - have much in common but also much which is unique to their populations, and to the way societies organise services. As Hodgkinson (1983: 24) explains:

> the prevailing ethos ... does not impinge upon the organisation but is modulated through the intervening subculture. A firm, or subsidiary of a firm, would differ in significant ways between, say, California, New York and Frankfurt. Each sub-culture imposes its own local mores and norms ... geography and history combine as the spatio-temporal determinants of consciousness in the workplace.

The prevailing ethos, to which Hodgkinson refers, is taken to be the heritage shared by each of the countries chosen for investigation. The 'subculture' should become evident in the uniqueness to be observed in locations within the countries, and, at the later micro level inquiry, in the distinctiveness apparent at each site. Presuppositions about the shared heritage are introduced by noting , in each case, the linkage to Britain.

Shared heritage

The links of the specified countries to England are historic. A brief outline of milestones in each of them indicates the particular characteristics that have shaped their heritage. Present conditions are influenced by the past. This is especially pertinent when considering human interaction and organisation in society, as in educational administration.

Australia

Colonisation of Australia began in 1788, European settlers took over land from the aboriginal people. Four states were formed between 1829 and 1859; to these were added two more, and two territories, before federation in 1901 when the Commonwealth of Australia came into existence. Of the original states, New South Wales (1788), Victoria (1803) and Tasmania (1803) are the three states upon which is focussed the meso level and the micro level inquiry into community participation in educational governance.

New Zealand

Early New Zealand settlement by the British began mainly through a connection with Australians in New South Wales. It was annexed by the British government in 1838 after determined resistance from the indigenous Maori people. A treaty was signed with them at Waitangi in 1840. It imposed a strong moral obligation on the British to protect the rights of these aboriginal people; to this day the concerns of language and custom are carefully considered in the educational reforms presently occurring in New Zealand. The New Zealand Constitution Act 1852 introduced self-government. The type of early settler to New Zealand was an upper working class person determined to establish a more equitable society than experienced in England, one who was willing to share with the Maori. Maoris live predominantly in the North Island. The main locations chosen for the observation of governance in New Zealand have been two in the South Island - Christchurch and Dunedin - although the New Zealand system of public education as a whole was investigated.

Canada

The British North American colonies achieved self-government in 1848. The Dominion of Canada came into being in 1867 with a constitution based on the British model. In it the language and legal rights of the French in Quebec and Ontario were confirmed. The province of British Columbia became a Canadian province in 1871. By 1961, only 59% of its population claimed origins in the British Isles. There is now a 5% proportion of Asiatics living in British Columbia.

Ireland (Eire)

This ancient nation was invaded by Celts, Norsemen, Normans, English and Scots during its history. In more recent times, Ireland was an integral part of the United Kingdom from 1800 to 1922. It is now a sovereign, independent and democratic state, though it is partitioned by virtue of Northern Ireland remaining a part of the British political system. A demographic feature is the high rate of emigration which has occurred, especially to Britain and the United States. An island, roughly of the same size and proportions as Tasmania, its religious and linguistic background is significant and influences education management. As 95% of the population is Roman Catholic, education is frequently denominational. Unlike the United Kingdom, Eire has a written constitution. The constitution provides that the Gaelic tongue is the first official language. It is taught in all schools but English is universally spoken.

Scotland

Although its ancient history has features similar to Ireland, Scotland is markedly free from the racial and religious strife which has characterised Irish history. In 1707, Scotland became an integral part of the United Kingdom; yet its political affiliation has

idiosyncratic elements such as its own legal and education system and a separate administration. Nevertheless it is economically integrated with England, Wales and Northern Ireland to the present time.

The United States of America

Earlier colonisation by Europeans, notable Spanish, Portuguese, and French, culminated in settlement by the British in the early 17th century. As colonies developed along the Atlantic seaboard, control was exercised by England. Maryland and Rhode Island (subjects of the Case Records) were among those colonies. During the 18th century, colonial legislatures gained control, and, particularly in New England, popular participation in government developed. Constitutional differences with Britain followed and a struggle for independence ensued. Resistance became war which terminated in the Declaration of Independence in 1776. The United States of America were set in place. Now a federal republic of 50 states and the fourth largest and most populous nation in the world, its major characteristic is its great variety. The United States is not homogeneous but has a traditional egalitarianism in which social, political, economic and religious freedom is prized. This is particularly evident in the field of education.

A British cultural inheritance

Some understanding of the British system is necessary in order to bound a study of governance of educational institutions which has a focus on countries which share a British heritage. Today's Britain, as Halsey (1986:2) explains,

> is a Western European capitalist society which has evolved into capitalist Welfare State governed politically by parliamentary democracy. Its commitment to both state welfare and a free market results in conflicts and accommodations which are to be found in all Western countries.

Halsey asserts that British culture is deeply individualistic, that individualism is built into custom and practice, into all local work places and community organisations and into all '"commonsensical explanations of why people do what they do". Britain's history, in particular the industrial and empire building phases of it, has bequeathed a legacy to the far-flung countries of Canada, New Zealand, the United States, Australia, Ireland. The British cultural inheritance has been adapted in each location, with locally unique modifications in social systems such as administration. Nevertheless, Halsey's (1986:3) contention is that the social order which pertains in late twentieth century Britain is one of "evolved consensus of traditional conservative, political liberal, and ethical socialist forces".

Thus is presented a picture of current scenarios in each of the countries whose past history has direct links to England.

A persistent theme in British culture has been that of inequality or social hierarchy. The "peculiar constraints of British history", as Halsey (1986: 173) points out, have meant that "the unequal powers and advantages of a ruling minority have survived from agrarian through industrial towards post industrial society with remarkable continuity". It is not difficult to see the parallel between this disposition and colonial conditions. The foundation of the countries as they are today saw systems imposed in the context not only of indigenous peoples, other foreign settlers in locations, but also religious groups; all three sectors were factors to be considered in developing societal organisation. The British heritage mainly underpinned administrative structures. So strong were the antecedent links that when the whole process of administering society underwent fundamental change during the last century, the legislative devices to accommodate the pressures for democracy and equality with which the Westminster Parliament grappled, can be seen mirrored in those countries which legitimated power sharing in an attempt to ensure all citizens had a voice in decision making.

The trend in society in the latter part of the twentieth century which Baron (1981:5) identifies, among other factors, is a breakdown in the respect hitherto accorded to the church, the law, the 'propertied classes', the employer, the family and the school. This has relevance for governance of learning institutions. The need has arisen for these social institutions to have alternative authority and power to perform their functions. This is evident in all Western democracies. The change is well articulated by Lord Morris (1975:18):

> The time is now upon us when it is necessary to ensure that decisions are acceptable before they are ever made; and this means among other things that many and varied sections of the community will have to feel that they have been able to play some part in actually making decisions.

Since 1975, when this was written, it is important to realise that almost all of the countries under scrutiny have made legislative changes that impact directly on the elements of participatory democracy, particularly as it affects governance of learning institutions.

To sum up to this point, there are common historical connections present to greater or lesser degrees, in New Zealand, Canada, the United States, England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and Australia. They may be expected to predispose parallels in educational administration, while acknowledging differences of time-scale or emphases dependent on individual interpretations of a 'Western', though widespread, system for management of education in each country. The culture which has evolved in New Zealand, Canada, Ireland and Australia is that coagulation of tradition, conservatism, liberalism, and socialism that Halsey (1983:3) finds the social order to be in Britain in the late twentieth century. The United States has evolved a somewhat different culture from the same roots.

The English system has set a pattern in several respects. Yet each contributory motif to the pattern often seems to reflect the 'peculiar constraints' recognised by Halsey (1986:173). Somewhat contradictory elements are to be found in, say, establishment of the British Public school system and the provision for free, compulsory, public education. Similarly, national legislation making mandatory the public will co-exists with empowerment of local authority.

Levels of inquiry

The United States of America, Scotland, Eire, England and Wales, Canada and New Zealand comprise the macro level locations. Within Australia, the States of New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania are the chosen meso level locations. From the outset, it should be understood that the United States of America does not fit comfortably into this category of 'British heritage' for many reasons, not the least of which is the virtual autonomy of States within it as regards responsibility for education. Yet the powers of States within Australia or Provinces within Canada reflect the American way. However, it is the quality and quantity of literature on educational administration which emanates from American sources, together with the opportunity to observe some practical application of two state systems (those of Maryland and Rhode Island), that are considered sufficient reason to include the United States in the study. It should be understood that the vast variations in practice in the United States pre-empt as thorough a review as is attempted in the other macro and meso level locations. Investigation in the United States of America should be regarded as a counterpoint to the general tenor of the study. It is a location that should not be excluded, ignored or left explored.

At both macro and meso levels, evidence is recorded of contemporaneous perceptions from informants about management of learning institutions in their locations. All share English as the *lingua franca.* The sites where these informants were interviewed were chosen from two perspectives: i) central authorities and ii) local practitioners. In the first instance, i), capital cities were chosen as sources of central authority data but other centres were included. One such was Oxford, where local management of seven schools is observed from theoretical as well as practical viewpoints. As regards ii), local practitioners were chosen in locations which, while they encompass some ethnic diversity, are not areas of marked socio-economic deprivation or racial problems. The coastal nature of most of the cities, the diversity of educational provision, including universities, in each location were shared features. However, there are notable differences. For example, Waterford does not have a university and York is inland.

In short, the macro and meso levels of inquiry represent a broad overview of the situation in each country with evidence gained from locations to substantiate pertinent

administrative regulations. The micro level focuses on the Tasmanian capital city of Hobart.

Summary of Chapter 4

This short chapter introduces the second section of the thesis. The emphasis in this section is on the decentralised educational administration evident in widespread locations. Chapter 4 identifies underlying suppositions for bounding inquiry into the problem of this governance study.

Historical features and cultural characteristics of the locations chosen for investigation have been described. The British cultural inheritance of Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Ireland, Scotland, and, in some respects, the United States of America, and their diversity, have been indicated briefly.

It is assumed that the shared heritage that has been outlined may affect the patterns, processes, and politics that are evident in the Case Records. The data which has been collected on location comprise the following two chapters.

The contextual presuppositions indicated in this chapter are intended to maintain coherence for the governance study as inquiry proceeds from the international to the local scene.

The particular Australian condition, in which the legality of State rights is implicit, serves as a useful example of commonality and difference in approach to educational administration. This condition provides for comparison and contrast at the meso level of inquiry to illustrate the term 'local community'. It reinforces the contention that people in particular places have particular ways of going about things. It has been argued in this chapter that variations can occur within any unit of social organisation, whether it be a country, a state, a region, a specific location or even an individual institution. However, certain predispositions underlie and link particular societies as, it is contended for the purposes of bounding this study, is the case in the countries which share the British cultural heritage. The Case Records are reports on specific settings. They proceed in the sequence given in the Model for a School Governance Study (Figure 4, page 52). The Case Records are separated into those from the macro level (Chapter 5) and those from the meso level (Chapter 6).

Chapter 5

Macro level Inquiry

CASE RECORD 1: The United States of America

In the United States of America, education is a responsibility of each state, the state's government legislating regarding education. State boards of education make regulations and policy. Each state is divided into school districts, each with its own board and superintendent. Comprising elected lay people, school boards levy property taxes and appoint staff. In the opinion of Pepper (1989:114), "Board members are usually prominent in the local community but may often be more interested in politics than in education".

Generally, individual public schools do not have individual governing bodies so the term school board should not be confused with later use of it to denote school-site governing bodies. The Federal Government involvement is limited for instance to financial aid for special purposes. Federal influence has been extended through some legislation (The Civil Rights Act, 1964, the Elementary and Secondary School Act, 1965), or through such national occasions as White House Conferences on Education. In 1989, a summit on education was convened by the President with the governors of fifty states. A statement of national goals for education (see Appendix 7). was the outcome.

Although Goodlad (1984) deplored the lack of a Federal policy with respect to the nature of quality of educational goals and programs, Cuban (1990:267) finds, some six years later, that there is "creeping centralization of authority at the State level, combined with the clear recognition of an expanded national interest in improved schooling".

Centralisation/decentralisation concerns

One of the traditional goals of education in the United States has been to prepare citizens for participation in a democratic society. This continues to be so, as evident in the third National Goal for Education (1989): "every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy". According to Lopate *et al.* (1970:139), "participation in decision making is popularly accepted as inherently good". Yet, Lopate *et al.* (1970:148), go on to say that "political and administration momentum has often led to increased centralization of power, varying degrees of representation rather than participation, and alienation of citizens from decisions which affect their lives". The rising size of school systems may compound the problems. Racial integration, decentralisation, choice of school, community control and lay citizen involvement are aspects of the participation movement in the United States.

District School Boards do not appear to have been perceived as satisfactory vehicles to drive local participation aspirations, nor, it seems have School Advisory Councils ('advisory' may have blunted the drive for any effective control). These were instituted in the 1950s to promote good relations between school and community. Jennings (1981:23) finds that even thirty years later there is still little shift in the centralised locus of policy and decision making.

Disquiet about declining standards

Goodlad (1984:1) comments "American schools are in trouble". He writes that Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT) scores have declined and dropout rates have increased during the 70s. In both measures, "a significant difference" exists between the US public and private schools, (Coleman & Hoffer 1987:66). Walberg *et al.* (1988:26) find:

> public education across the U.S. compares unfavourably in many ways, to public education in other nations, to private schools teaching children from the same backgrounds, and even to public education of two or three decades ago.

Dissatisfaction with educational quality had been evident for a long time in the United States. Adler (1977:17) admits querying despairingly back in 1940 "Can anything be done about American education? I doubt it". Many recommendations for its improvement have been forthcoming and many have focused on the link between community involvement and student performance. *A Nation at Risk* (1983:46) advises "Public support is the most powerful of all the tools we have at hand to affect the quality of education". Commenting on public schools in Chicago, Walberg *et al.* (1988:32), find "curriculum decisions are often made without parental or community participation" and "parental involvement in decision making at the school level is non-existent or largely illusory" (Walberg *et al.* 1988:50). On the American scene generally, Fullan (1982:203) comments, "it is a crying shame there are so many barriers to parental involvement".

Devolution and improved outcomes

The cure (an acronym, CURE, stands for Chicagoans Unite to Reform Education) for Chicago schools which Walberg *et al.* (1988:111) prescribe is "taking control of the schools from a remote and too powerful bureaucracy and returning it to principals, teachers, and local community representatives". Educational administration in the city of Chicago is an aberration in its own State of Illinois, according to Walberg *et al.* (1988:117), for "local control of schools [through District Boards] is the norm throughout Illinois" with the result that "overall student levels and citizen satisfaction are far higher than in Chicago". Lest Chicago's condition be perceived as an isolated modern problem, recognition should be

accorded to the Bundy Report (1967) which suggested similar solutions for New York City schools.

Discrepancies will occur in the heterogeneity of management structures which follow under the Federal/State rights mandate. These divergencies are expressions of democracy and may inevitably result in different outcomes in learning institutions, different solutions to problems. Variations justifiably reflect unique features in localities, but where learning is viewed in as critical a light as indicated by Lopate *et al.* (1970), Jennings (1981), *A Nation at Risk* (1983), Goodlad (1984), or Walberg *et al.* (1988), there appears to be a pattern of dissatisfaction in the United States which calls for changes to be made and, what Caldwell (1990:305) has called the 'restructuring of education', on a national scale.

Restructuring of U.S.A. education has the potential to impact in many other countries because the output from scholarly writers and researchers in the United States has made an extensive, indeed a preponderant, contribution to knowledge and informative findings on education in this century. From its earliest years, American educators have been heard around the world on the subject of what constitutes good schools. As Adler (1990:xxv) reminds us: " In 1900, John Dewey said that the kind of schooling that the best and wisest parents would want for their own children is precisely the kind of schooling that the community should want for all its children".

American evaluators of curriculum, Tyler (1942), Bloom (1956), Stake (1967), and Stufflebeam (1971), have each received widespread attention for effective criteria for decision making about learning. Solutions to problems in education and recommendations for change (recognised as also applicable outside the United States) have come from Mortimore Adler (1982) with the Paideia Proposal and Sizer (1984) with the Coalition of Essential Schools. An irony is that the Paideia program in schools originated in Chicago, a city whose large system has had dire problems, as Walberg *et al.* (1988) indicate. Other notable American scholars who made proposals for instructional improvement are Boyer (1983), Lightfoot (1983), and Goodlad (1984). But, as Adler (1990:311) comments, "An adequate reform of basic schooling in this country cannot be a quick fix". This could find echoes around the world.

There are signs that the trend in devolution towards greater public participation at the school level is being followed in the USA as elsewhere. The National Governors' Association Report (1986:59) calls for provision of "discretionary resources to give schools a major incentive to improve". A combined National Education Association National Association of Secondary Principals (NEA-NASSP) Report (1986:13) expressed commitment to the principle that substantial decision making authority at the school-site is the essential prerequisite for quality education.

The sheer size and diversity of the States within the Union precludes the emergence of any definitive pattern of educational administration which could be said to be distinctively American, that is, apart from the emphasis on democratic principles. Some

illustration of present American perceptions was sought in communities which bore similarity to the Tasmanian locality. A school district in Maryland (State population 3 million) and in the New England State of Rhode Island (population under 1 million) were considered by the researcher to have similarities to Tasmania. Systems such as those of Chicago or New York could scarcely exemplify this congruence.

AMERICAN EVIDENCE: informants in Maryland and Rhode Island

Those persons who were interviewed in Maryland and Rhode Island included school board members, academics in the local universities, teachers, parents, and students in public and private schools. As usual, there was opportunity for informal talk with lay members of each community during the period of inquiry.

Context A. Allegany County

In this location, inquiry concentrated on administrative concerns at the central point of a system. Public education in Allegany County is under the supervision and control of a five member Board of Education whose members are elected on "a nonpartisan basis" (Guild, 1990:iv). The Board appoints the Superintendent of Schools for a four year term. The superintendent heads a central office staff.

During an interview with an educational administrator in this setting, several chords were struck which resonated with the Tasmanian educational scene. He was dealing extensively at the time with the issue of school closures due to declining school enrolments (20.7% fewer students than a decade ago) and financial stringency. He said "this community wants a quick fix to the problem". To elucidate community concerns, an Education Task-force was at work. In its Report (Guild, 1990), a summary of the findings and recommendations include provision "for generous involvement of affected community" in "Consolidation/ Deconsolidation" (ie. school closure issues). Among the general recommendations, familiar phrases like 'regular communication', 'the need to communicate effectively and regularly with the general public', clarification of 'respective roles' of professional and lay members of educational administration, and 'examine closely the philosophy of schoolbased management' (Guild, 1990:v), were mentioned. In general comments, Guild (1990:viii) notes that "successful governance and management of a school system is not an easy task anywhere". Leadership and vision are reiterated as essential requirements by Guild, and the fact is stressed that "the educational process will be devoid of vitality if those most responsible for education feel they are left out of its planning and management".

To illustrate the ubiquity of concerns which informed commentators and educationalists are making in diverse locations at this time, attention has been paid to this report on a small American system with a school enrolment of under 11,000 students. Parents who were interviewed in this locality expressed common concerns. Typical remarks were:

> Are the teachers not only well trained but well educated?;
> "Will my children be obliged to travel unreasonable distances to get to school?";
> "How well is my child learning in school?"

Context B. Garrett County

At a Community College in Oakland, the Board of Trustees was observed, and some members interviewed. The vocational learning institution catered for secondary and post-secondary school students. Although, Sizer (1984:231) affirms that he is "opposed to schooling that focuses narrowly on particular job training", Skilbeck (1990:61) comments that "vocationalism is a theme which increasingly informs the curriculum of all students". This vocational aspect of educational provision has application for this study, especially as two of the case studies of governance in the Tasmanian have contexts in which the curriculum of the particular institutions is provided for students with strong vocational and work related needs. The same applied to this College in Maryland. A teacher said "The principal is the linchpin for us". A Trustee commented during her interview with the researcher "This is real 1990s education here, never dull or old fashioned". This trustee spends a considerable part of her life voluntarily working for administration of this institution. Her children attend the college and her husband is on the staff. A local academic commented "The students there are mostly from lower socioeconomic sectors, few will aspire to go to College". A teacher at the college expressed the view " It is exciting trying to keep up with the technological curriculum, funds are the main problem for us". Another said "The Board is on our side and helps a whole lot'.

Context C: The city of Providence in Rhode Island

Providence has many features congruent with Hobart Tasmania. It is capital city of a small State. A coastal community, it has a similar population, varied provision for public and private education with university education long-established. Providence is located an hour by air travel time from a major centre, New York. Similar educational concerns to Maryland's began to surface during interviews. A University Faculty member commented "Rhode Island is conservative, professionals are paid to provide the education, not the populace". The principal of a Quaker school spoke of its governing body, the Board of Overseers, as having complete trust in him. "They are advisors, they can recommend. I may, or may not follow the advice.". One of the overseers commented "We make the broad brush strokes, we're never intrusive but can provide moments of clarification for the school'".

In another independent school, which espoused the Coalition of Essential Schools promoted by local academic, Ted Sizer, the Headmistress complained of the governing body's apathy. "It is the personalities, or lack of them, on it. Nothing creative gets done. They have skills but don't use them for us". Yet ateacher in that school said she felt "The Sizer experiment gives us authority to extend children's learning here". Sizer (1985: 222) acknowledges that the Coalition of Essential Schools' commitment to quality of education in secondary schools extends to both public and private institutions across America. The public system in Providence conforms to the U.S. District School Board pattern.

Reflections on the American Case Record

The sheer diversity of educational provision is obvious in a country with a large population and with so many political units within its Federation. Each location has its specific problems, strengths and weaknesses. Professional educators continue to devise and promote assorted strategies to elevate standards that have been perceived as declining in many locations. Some initiatives and experiments have been mentioned. Each have their devotees, but it is apparent that there is no one way to achieve effective education.

However, it is justifiable to speculate that the efforts of professionals will be more effective when greater account is taken of the demand for participatory democracy, not just 'ballot box democracy', (Kogan *et al.*, 1984:20). Genuine collaboration between educators and the laity at the point of decision making could achieve improved outcomes for North American students. The school district model of collective policy making does not appear to have staunched the flow of criticism about educational standards, nor to have achieved the levels of participation which apparently is being demanded in the United States. There is evidence that despite much rhetoric and well-considered writing about the benefits which accrue for students from greater participation by the lay community in school-site government, the locus of control has not shifted significantly in that direction. Generally, the question of perceived dominance by professionals, teachers and bureaucrats, is not being addressed by legislation or authoritative directives. A responsive attitude to full participation by all stakeholders in education at a localised site appears to be lacking.

CASE RECORD 2: SCOTLAND

The Scottish education system is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland. The principal agency concerned with education in Scotland is the Scottish Education Department (SED), not the English Department of Education and Science (DES). In Scotland over 90% of pupils attend schools in the public system maintained by Education Authorities. The main secondary school certificate is the Scottish Certificate of Education, its Standard Grade courses and examinations are not dissimilar to the General Certificate of Education in England and Wales. Independent Scottish tendencies can be identified in a deviation from the trend towards local community participation in governance identified elsewhere. There are some unique characteristics of the phenomenon of devolution to be observed in Scotland, but there is also a consistency with the chronology typical of locations which share a British heritage.

Scottish structures

Some thirty years ago, the Wheatley Report (1969) of the Royal Commission on Local Government in Scotland discussed the implications of power, effectiveness, efficiency, flexibility, local democracy, representation, local involvement and the concept of community. The Wheatley Report (1969:232) advocated the principle that "issues should

be dealt with at the lowest, or most local, level consistent with the nature of the problem involved". Yet that which followed, the Local Government (Scotland) Act (1973), introduced regionalisation to Scotland. In line with the nine mainland and three island regions, twelve educational authorities were established with powers similar to Local Education Authorities (LEA) in England and Wales. This reduced the previous thirty eight Education Authorities, considerably increasing the size of area to be covered by central administration. In the same year, the English Local Government Act reduced the number of LEAs from 162 to 104. This had the effect of more centralised control of increasingly larger areas to be administered. The new regional authorities in Scotland came fully into operation in May 1975.

Past participatory patterns

The 1973 Act introduced school councils. This, at least, indicated a response to some local involvement as a balance for the increasingly centralised system of administration. Councils began to be formed in 1975; by 1977 they were operating throughout Scotland. Some 3669 State Schools were served by 302 operational School Councils. Each council served approximately 12 schools. According to the Act, as quoted by Macbeth *et al.* (1980:9), councils were required to discharge "such functions of management and supervision as the Education Authority determined". Council membership was to include teachers, parents, at least one person interested in the promotion of religious education and, in certain circumstances, representatives of higher education and the community. Apart from this, specified numbers of members, proportions or maxima were not given. In considering possible membership categories at that time, Macbeth *et al.* (1980:78) suggest that selection from the wider community could include "representatives of community councils, community education, preschool establishments, churches, industry, careers advisers, the police, local shopkeepers, and even plain taxpayers".

Macbeth (1981:109) comments that the functions of these councils tended "to avoid central educational issues". Earlier, Macbeth *et al.* (1980:11) recognised that, historically, the influence that councils exerted over schools at the most local level has been slight. They question whether a situation where the influence of the school's immediate community appears to be minimal should continue, or whether school councils in Scotland could reverse that trend in the light of prevailing perceptions favouring devolution, decentralisation and participation.

The Scottish School Councils Project (1980) in which Macbeth and his fellow researchers were engaged, covered the genesis of Scottish school councils. The work of the project was comprehensive and balanced. Arguments were put for and against participation of Scottish communities in educational administration. These have relevance for other systems by affirmation of education as a joint process which prevents isolation of the school from its community, and by articulation of problems such as unwarranted lay interference in

professional matters. Macbeth *et al.* (1980:20) mention the "pooling of ignorance" by which council members may reach "ill considered conclusions on the basis of brief encounters". Macbeth *et al.* (1980) analysed a large sample of council meeting minutes. This showed that less than 1% of the items discussed concerned the curriculum although 8% were regarded as 'broadly educational'.

In Scotland, there had been some tradition of local committees with control over finance, staff appointments and buildings. The Education (Scotland) Act 1872 had established over nine hundred popularly elected school boards. However, by 1918 these had been replaced by thirty eight Education Authorities. These, in turn, were reduced in 1973 to twelve much larger areas to be centrally administered by professionals. Effectively, local representation on any of nine hundred boards in 1872 had been reduced, one hundred years later, to three hundred and two school councils with very little power, and not much enthusiasm. At the same time, the size of the units of educational authority had increased, making response to local conditions less likely. It would be surprising if local communities did not feel marginalised by such an administrative system but, perhaps, characteristics peculiar to Scotland mitigated against pressure for greater public participation. The reputed high quality of Scottish education is traditionally a matter of national pride. In addition, Macbeth *et al.* (1980:10) comment that Scotland has benefited from "enlightened administration from the centre". This may account for the "peripheral nature of school councils", remarked upon by Macbeth *et al.* (1980: 15).

However, Scotland did not escape the prevailing pressures for lay participation. The Scottish Office legislation correlates with English legislation in the 1980s. But the functions of governing bodies in England and Wales are for the local management of schools whereas in Scotland, that is not so. In this connection, Maclure (1989:132) comments that the Scots have managed to run a democratic system without the degree of decentralised control which has evolved in England. He notes an attempt to assemble Scottish support for governors in the English manner during 1987 produced a hostile reaction which "forced Scottish Office ministers to beat a retreat".

The pattern of Scottish participatory governance

In 1980, Macbeth *et al.* (1980:183) affirm retention of the term 'school council' as appropriate for the function which this type of body was called upon to perform; not to govern Scottish schools but to counsel. In the event, the Schools Board (Scotland) Act 1988 not only signifies a change of name, but a change of structure, too. Under the terms of the Scottish Act, each Education Authority has a statutory duty to set up a school board for each of its schools, primary and secondary. The term 'School Board' marks a return to the nomenclature with Scottish antecedents (1872 Act). This not only rejects recommendations to retain the title 'council' (Macbeth *et al., 1980*), but also the English term 'governor'.

The size of the present Scottish Boards depends on the school's enrolment but each Board is to consist of parent members, a staff member, and co-opted members. Parent and staff members are elected to the Board by secret ballot. The head teacher of a school is not regarded as a member of the Board but as its 'Principal Professional Advisor'. While a board may request the delegation from the Authority of additional powers, there are powers which may not be delegated. The aim of these boards is to enhance the cooperation and partnership between parents, teachers, the Education Authority and the wider community. Although the aim is to give parents and the wider community a greater say in school education, dealing with matters particular to their own individual school, the Education Authorities appear to be more in command than any English LEA under the regime of Local Management of Schools (LMS). The powers of LEAs have been curtailed by LMS, but, in Scotland, Regional and Islands Authorities are still responsible for the management and delivery of education. The function of Scottish Boards is clearly seen as an encouragement to local communities to cooperate with schools and to provide a means for expression of community views.

Under the terms of the Education (Scotland) Act 1981 particular information with regard to individual schools has to be provided to parents, who are also given the right to place requests for their child to attend a school of their choice outside the normal 'catchment area' or zone in which they live, should they so wish. The Education (Scotland) Act 1908 placed fundamental responsibility for the child's education from 5-14 years upon the parents. This is still acknowledged (School Board Manual of the Scottish Office, 1989) as a basic principle of the Scottish Education system.

Although more concerned with curriculum more than administrative matters, the Munn Report (1977:57) emphasised that "there is a need for improved cooperation between schools, parents and other agencies to ensure, as far as possible, that there is no conflict of aims". Macbeth *et al.* (1980:11) acknowledge "the growing recognition of the educational influence of families on how a child achieves in school, and the ways in which schools could relate more closely to their immediate surroundings". Relevant information has been continuously communicated to Scottish parents. An observable feature is the quality of the information conveyed to parents from educational authorities. This is especially obvious in relation to dissemination of information about school boards. Regional education authorities have provided a training program to help the smooth operation of establishing school boards. Separate programs for head teachers on the implication of school boards have also been organised. An array of support materials manuals, videos, television and radio awareness programs is available.

In Scottish schools, the boards' main function seems to be to ensure that the statutory duties placed on their education authority are carried out. Apart from that, there appears to be a wide degree of choice about how boards carry out responsibilities. Functions such as keeping in touch, encouraging links, taking part, approving plans and budgets,

helping raise funds, are those mentioned in official communications to board members. Powers which have not been delegated to boards include appointment or dismissal of staff, curriculum or assessment procedures, closure of schools, admission policy. No payment is given to members other than travel or subsistence expenses. There is a regulation to report at least annually to parents.

SCOTTISH EVIDENCE: informants in Aberdeen

The third largest of Scotland's nine mainland regions is that of Grampian in the north east of the country. Its central administrative headquarters is Aberdeen. Among the services which Grampian Regional Council provides is a Department of Education, educational policy being the responsibility of a Director of Education. The present incumbent and his staff were generous to the researcher with their time in setting out for the researcher the details of developing School Boards in their region under the 1988 Act.

Three fee paying schools, one for boys and two for girls, exist in Aberdeen. Enrolment in them represents less than 10% of the school population. Post school education is provided in this city by the University of Aberdeen, by an institute of technology and by a teacher training institution. The city was reminiscent of Hobart in many ways, but its proximity to North Sea oil installations gave it the *cachet* of 'oil capital of Europe', thus indicating marked economic differences between two ports situated in the far north and the far south of the globe.

The Schools Boards (Scotland) Act 1988 specifically requires councils to promote contacts between the school and the community through involvement of parents and local community in the provision of school education in Scotland. During the Scottish phase of the macro level inquiry in Aberdeen, this process of setting up formal contact between schools and their communities was closely observed at the central offices of the Grampian Regional Authority. A dedicated staff of professionals, mostly teachers seconded from schools, was occupied in establishing boards. Ample financial and professional resources appeared to be devoted to this task; apparently reasonable time-lines were in place for implementation. Sessions of training in procedures at far-flung locations in the region, using documentation which was graphically superb, were carried out by officials of the Department of Education.

The role of the staff in this sector was summed up by one of them who stated "we train school heads to deal with their Boards". An Aberdonian headteacher, who had been trained, told the researcher that he liked "the idea of Boards being accountable to parents, it takes some of the heat off teachers". The cost to Grampian Council of mounting Boards in each school in the region has been "huge in this first year of operation" said a deputy director. An adequate budget to resource the setting up of these Boards may account for a deal of the success they appear to enjoy in the perception of those citizens of Aberdeen who were

encountered informally during the inquiry. But one parent warned "When the money dries up, all the political wrangling will resurface about the use of these councils".

During the time of inquiry in Aberdeen, there happened to be media attention on self-governing status for schools in Scotland. In particular, the provision for schools to opt out of the present system was a focus of concern. A leading article by Teresa Grant (*Times Education Scottish Supplement* 18 May 1990) noted that "with the possible exception of one school in Orkney, not a single one of 2900 schools eligible for opting out has even begun to signify interest". One may ask if this indicates parental apathy or strong conviction of the effectiveness of the present system? In another article in this edition, a journalist, Ian Davidson, identified a strong sense of the importance of the community dimension in education. He expressed the opinion that "teachers have been able to wrap their own self interest in the cloak of the interests of the service". In his view, education was "firmly in the grip of the professionals" and "excessive professionalism is often an excuse for keeping aloof, for not explaining what is being done and for not seeing their responsibility to deliver an effective service". Davidson's opinion of Labour controlled Councils was that they were 'a feast of teachers'.

As Grampian Regional Council is jointly administered by Labour and Liberal Democrat groups, a more balanced view may be taken by that authority. Observation of the preparation by its Department of Education of strategies and material for use of School Boards would lead to a conclusion that these professionals are giving full explanations and are taking the responsibility seriously. But as to professional 'grip', it could not be disguised in this location.

During an interview with a local journalist, whom the researcher asked about the above media perceptions, Macbeth's view that the school education in Scotland is well respected was confirmed. It seemed to be particularly true in Aberdeen and its environs. The journalist said the Scottish system had few detractors, unlike that of England, adding "the systems of the two countries after O Levels are totally incompatible, even our university degree structure is different"

Reflections on the Scottish Case Record

Contentions that declining standards of education may induce pressure for greater participation by communities in formulating policies for schools could not be sustained in Scotland. While it is possible that, in larger metropolitan regions, other opinions of Scottish education are held in the late twentieth century, both the literature review and the personal contacts made in Aberdeen appear to substantiate a view that the Scots regard their system as superior and excellent. That is not to imply that there has not been, nor does not presently exist, criticism of the level of meaningful involvement of communities in decision making. Expression of these concerns has been mentioned.

Legal and authoritative regulations have mandated the setting up of School Boards to meet any demand for participation. Scottish politicians and administrative bureaucrats, however independently minded, could not escape this demand. However, the dominance of professional educators is affirmed in the means devised to implement legal and regulatory sanctions in Scotland.

While Scottish School Boards, as presently constituted, can be seen as a means of expressing community views and enhancing the cooperation and partnership between the laity and the professionals, the difference between the ends to be achieved by members of Scottish Boards and English governors is more than semantic. Considerable financial and human resources have been directed to establishing the present system of accommodating local views into the Scottish educational agenda. From the evidence in Aberdeen, this appears to have been carefully orchestrated to ensure that the professionals retain the high profile they obviously enjoy in Scotland.

CASE RECORD 3: Ireland (Eire)

The tradition of education in Ireland is rooted deep in the past and in the regard displayed by its native people for education, even during times of great political and economic difficulty. In the view of historian, Akenson (1989:523), "despite the British stereotypes of the troglodytic Irishman, the Irish peasant of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries evinced a striking avidity for education". He adds that the peasant culture was, to a remarkable extent, 'a word culture'. A history of 'hedge schools', parochial schools and national schools is evidence of continuing intense interest by the people in education. The influence in Ireland of those of English birth can be seen in the foundation three centuries ago of free grammar schools, Protestant 'charter schools', and 'royal schools', several of which are still in existence. In addition there are diocesan, or church, schools.

Irish management practices in the past

The establishment of a national school system in the mid-nineteenth century was a balancing influence between the involvement of Churches and State in primary education, a bi-partisan influence continues to the present time, with the Church in the superordinate position. In 1831, the Chief Secretary, E.G. Stanley, planned national schools which would have a mixture of highly centralised, yet strongly localised, control of education. He instituted commissioners to oversee the system. Akenson (1989:530) notes "the commissioners, unpaid, were men of distinction in various fields barristers, professors, bishops". He comments that the unpaid board members who were appointed, not elected, could be more independent in thought and action than professional civil servants. Each school had a local manager who had extensive control; Catholic schools had the parish priest as manager, Protestants had the rector, minister, or landlord. "There was no reasonable way for a parent to influence the conduct of the local national school," adds

Akenson (1989:531). In this system secondary schools were purely voluntary institutions (Coolahan, 1986:1) which were funded on the basis of payment by results of pupil performance.

Stanley's scheme did not have the desired effect of social integration of Catholics and Protestants. To this day, schools are predominantly denominational, often of single sex, although that is changing. Stanley's national system, in the opinion of Akenson (1989:536), "deserves credit for making Ireland a country of literates'" Literate, that is, the English language. The question of the Irish language was one for the present century.

Contemporary Irish education

Today, Eire occupies three-quarters of the island of Ireland. The remainder of the country, Northern Ireland, is a province of the United Kingdom and has therefore similar educational administration, although again with unique features as in the case of Scotland. Conditions in Northern Ireland's educational system have not been recorded in this inquiry.

Some 3 million people live in Eire, nearly 50% of whom are under the age of twenty five years. This young population presents challenges unlike general trends affecting educational administration in developed countries where 'grey power' is becoming a predominant feature. In Eire, almost one million young people are involved in full time formal education (Hussey, 1986:47). Student retention rates have increased from 18% in 1964 to 66% in 1984, according to Whelan & Whelan (1984:157) who go on to say, however, that sons of non-skilled manual workers are over 29 times more likely than those from higher level white collar backgrounds to leave the secondary school system without any qualification.

Expenditure on education is about 6% of GNP, spending which Hussey (1986: 48) asserts is "almost top of the European league". The system is largely state aided; funding does not discriminate between denominations. The Department of Education determines educational policy and the system is perceived as 'highly centralised' (Hussey, 1985:11) or 'very centralised'. (Coolahan, 1990). In earlier decades of the century, too, O'Meara (1958:4) perceived the centralisation which characterises its educational system as "the original sin in Irish education".

Moves to set up regional structures in 1974 and, again in 1985 with the Minister for Education's Green Paper (1985: 3), have not been successful, according to Coolahan (1990). The Green Paper (1985:5) proposed Local Education Councils for thirteen geographical areas and an individual Board of Management for each postprimary school. Membership categories were specified (Green Paper, 1985:6). It should be noted that ownership of most of the institutions is still in the hands of religious bodies.

When the new State of Ireland (1920) was established with its own Minister of Education (1924) there was no provision for an advisory council or for reintroduction of local educational committees. (Coolahan, 1986:5). Since 1924, Ministers of Education have taken

the position which Coolahan (1986:5) notes as "appropriate division of powers between Church and State in relation to education, with the State seen in the subsidiary role". The Vocational Education Act 1930 provided for practical and vocational education in local areas to meet perceived needs of students. This Act, in the words of Education Minister Hussey (1986:45) "served this country well over the last 55 years". A Council of Education was established in 1950, but Coolahan (1986:6) writes that "only two tasks delegated to the Council for appraisal were reports on the curricula of the primary and secondary schools".

Schooling in Eire today is organised in three levels, the first being Primary for children up to 12 years of age. There are four types of second level schools: secondary, vocational, comprehensive and community. The last two have been instituted in the 1960s to meet the aptitudes of students. Regional Technical Colleges (RTC) represent part of the third level of the system which include tertiary institutions. Each RTC has a College Council (Hussey, 1985:25). In a personal communication with the researcher, Coolahan (1990) writes that, except for the vocational schools (which now number 200 out of some 800 post primary schools), all schools relate individually with the centralised Department of Education. He explains:

> Management Boards were only established for national schools in 1975 and their role rather limited, particularly as regards curricula. Most vocational, all community and all comprehensive schools have management boards at postprimary level. About one third of the secondary schools have management boards.

This letter gives some indication of the confused picture presented to the inquirer, and to the Irish public in general, of school governance patterns in which it is possible to participate.

Prospects for participation

As in other countries bounded by this study, the prominence of teacher unionism is acknowledged in Ireland. In this connection, Coolahan (1986:13) expresses the view that the bitter antagonisms between the teacher unions in the late 60s and early 70s have been ameliorated. At the same time, he feels that "the role of parent and citizen within the education process has won more general acceptance than formerly".

By the 1980s, opposing political parties were expressing those recognised universal concerns about public involvement in education. The Fine Gael Party policy statement, *Education in the 80s* (1982:29), called for necessary changes in administrative structures, lessening of 'monolithic control', and devolution of responsibilities to local centres of control. A Labour Party policy document (1980:32) had spoken of "local and regional education authorities as vehicles of democratic will". A joint Fine Gael/Labour Program for Government (1982:24) called for reform of administrative structure "so as to make it more decentralised and democratic".

There are non-political manifestations of interest and concern as well. A respected administrator, T.J. Barrington (1988:20), advances the "principle of subsidiarity which insists that operations should be carried out at the lowest practicable levels". Acceptance of this principle would militate against the present centralisation which Barrington (1988:19) describes as the strong "centripetal forces of Irish government". Barrington (1988:22) finds that, in the context of his observations, there are no government proposals for communities to be involved in the truest sense of the term 'community', that is, at the specific and local level of a school site.

IRISH EVIDENCE: informants in Waterford and Cork

Inquiry in two provincial cities, Waterford and Cork, accentuated the view of dependence on the capital, Dublin, which is the centre of authority for the Irish education system. There were frequent references by personnel in both the public and private schools to the central Department of Education. Teachers in Irish non-government schools are remunerated by the government. This binds schools in that system to central authority in a special way. The enforcement of teaching the Irish tongue is another coalescent factor.

Due to the confusion engendered by factors noted above, it was difficult to isolate issues of participation in educational administration or to interview informants who could offer perceptions on patterns or procedures relevant to the general trend of participation observed in other countries. There appeared to be no comparable system to discuss. In informal discussion, it was evident that parents and teachers accepted the *status quo* of involvement, in fact non-involvement, in their particular local institutions. Authority is, after all, a characteristic of hierarchical Church control. Religious allegiance is extremely powerful in Ireland, both in Eire and in Northern Ireland, although the denominations vary in those locations.

One interviewee, a trainee teacher in Cork, plainly wished to enter a profession which perpetuated a system which she had experienced "The nuns are hard teachers but they make you learn, I like that". This view was reinforced by a parent in Waterford who viewed the central credentialing system as "stretching kids to the limit, we can't do that at home now any more'".

The headmaster of an independent, co-educational school in Waterford had to contend with a traditional Board of Governors. Accommodation of the total number of appointees to it resulted in an oversized group consisting of more than thirty members. The headmaster's comment was "It is virtually impossible to reach a consensus and make decisions with such a diverse large group". Does this number of participants in one institution indicate an enthusiasm for involvement which could be expected if formal governing bodies were more general in Ireland?

Reflections on the Irish Case Record

As the researcher was reared in the Irish system, memory and familiarity were not dislodged by observing present processes. A pattern of Church and State bi-partisan control persists. Although there is historic precedent for lay involvement in management, little appears to be exercised today. In particular, opportunity for school-site government is not a prominent feature.

It may not be that the trend towards decentralisation has passed by the Irish system so much as the fact that pressure to meet the needs of a relatively large school population, in practical administrative terms, could conceivably override more philosophical considerations such as greater participation of the populace in decision making. Although Skilbeck (1990:20) in his overview of demographic trends in OECD countries remarks on a dramatic drop in the Irish birth rate, he does acknowledge the present inflated enrolment pattern due to an earlier 'bulge'. Perhaps, when this significant problem for Irish administrators has been resolved, there will be more opportunity and time for considering issues of decentralisation.

However, after this observational inquiry, it would be difficult to disagree with the conclusion of Coolahan (1986:14) that educational administration in Ireland "can do with a greater sense of partnership between agencies involved and 'serving community ' is a useful slogan. The tugs of war over power and control which have plagued Irish education over the years have served the educational interests of the community badly".

CASE RECORD 4: ENGLAND AND WALES

The British tradition of delivering public education has been that of a national service, locally administered. The idea of each school having a body of managers or governors is deeply rooted in the history of educational administration in England and Wales. There has been a multidisciplinary approach, directed by the Department of Education and Science (DES) for England and Wales. Scotland is administered by the Scottish Office and the province of Northern Ireland also has separate arrangements. This comprises the public system of education in Great Britain.

As regards the governance of schooling in the 'home' country, the 1944 Education Act fixed a position for educational administration. It made for central control while allowing for local authorities to interpret it. The Act laid down that each primary and secondary school should have a body of managers and a body of governors respectively. Secondary school governors had substantial discretion in respect of appointment of heads and staff, curriculum, organisation. Bainbridge (1989:3) finds that this Act gained its impetus "from

the aspirations and vision of the clergy, politicians and the people at large". This was an interesting community consensus in 1944. However, in the years that followed this Act, there appeared to be little interest in management by individual governing bodies. In reality, several schools grouped together.

Pressure for participation, concern for consumers

During the 1960s, groups were formed such as the Confederation of Associations for the Advancement of State Education (CASE) and the Advisory Centre for Education (ACE), which indicates response to concerns from the consumers of education. The Plowden Report 1967 recommended increased parent involvement and participation in management bodies. In 1970, a National Association of Governors and Managers (NAGM) was formed to strengthen governing bodies as policy making agencies. The so-called 'Great Debate' in the mid Seventies, engendered by Labour Prime Minister Callaghan's Ruskin Speech (18th October 1976), crystallised many concerns within British society about the state of the education system. Callaghan's seminal address presaged many another political statement in different parts of the world with his stern warning

> to the teachers I would say that you must satisfy the parents and industry that what you are doing meets their requirements and the needs of their children. For if the public is not convinced then the profession will be laying up trouble for itself in the future.

The Callaghan Labour Government set up the Taylor Committee which reported in 1977. It recommended a change in membership of governing bodies so that it was shared equally between representatives of local authorities, teachers, parents and local community. But there was a minority report (The Fulton Report) that recommended a greater degree of central planning rather than devolution. There were other critics of Taylor at the time, too, among them were teacher unions, local authorities, and educational researchers. Doubts were expressed about the element of empowering the laity in governing schools, Whitehead & Aggleton (1986:437) question "the critical role of human agency (in all its contradictoriness) in education policy change". They note the Parliamentary statement (Hansard, 6/7/77) of the then Education Secretary, Shirley Williams, that a governing body was expected to be "a forum for discussion, explanation and influence, not a determiner of policy". At the level of logistics, it was the view of Pascal (1987:276) that there were not enough parents to meet the requirements, consequently there was not much hope for a surge of populist control envisaged.

The Taylor Report (1977) foreshadowed that the curriculum should not remain a matter for heads and teachers. By the beginning of the Eighties, there was a Conservative Government in power. The Education Act 1980 laid the foundation of participation in school management but also reasserted government responsibility for curriculum. In issuing the

Green paper (1984), the Secretary of State for Education, Sir Keith Joseph, "brought a more aggressive approach to consumer questions in education which went a long way beyond anything put forward by Taylor" Maclure (1989:136). According to Maclure (1989:137) , Sir Keith Joseph's Education (No 2) Act (1986) is "the master document so far as school governing bodies is concerned". Although the Education Reform Act (1988) was the foundation for local management of schools, Maclure considers that the three Acts, 1944, 1986 and 1988 have to be read together "by anyone who wants to understand the position which governing bodies now occupy in the education systems of England and Wales".

Producer domination

By 1987, a new Secretary of State for Education, Kenneth Baker, in a speech in the Second Reading debate (Hansard, 3/12/ 87) on the Education Reform Bill (enacted as the Education Reform Act, 1988) said of the education system "We need to inject a new vitality into that system. It has become producer dominated". It is of some moment to note that similar expressions of concern about professional domination of educational systems were made in New Zealand, when the Scott Report (1986) asserted that 'provider capture' permeated delivery of education in that country. Later, vitality became a concern in Australia as well. In New South Wales the Scott Report (1989) had 'a strategy to revitalise schools' as its subtitle.

Political domination

The late 1980s were landmark years for response to perceived community aspirations for greater participation partly as a result of concerns about quality of education and partly a response by politicians to the relationship between educational investment and economic growth. Legislation and its implementation, scholarly writing, media commentary and official reports on education all indicated a major change in direction for the British public school system. Other political factors cannot be ignored in any discussion of the rationale for these changes. In particular the economic imperative in all Western countries. There were teachers' pay disputes, and, in England at any rate, the influence of the New Right which is encapsulated in Thatcherism. Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher had been a Secretary of State for Education (a position created by the 1944 Act in place of Minister for Education) for a time in the previous decade. Again parallels can be drawn with Australia, where two contemporary State Premiers, Joan Kirner and Carmen Lawrence, have been Ministers of Education in Victoria and in Western Australia respectively. In New Zealand, former Prime Minister David Lange, the architect of system reform in that country, was Minister of Education at the crucial stages in implementation of the Picot Report (1988). It becomes apparent that the Education portfolio is highly regarded by governments.

In England, during the passage of the Education Reform Bill there was deep crisis in local government. The distribution of power which had pertained for more than half a

century was being revised. As Maclure (1989:vii) sees it, the national franchise was to take precedence over the local. This was highly controversial. Maclure (1989:172) explains that the genesis of the Educational Reform Act (1988) was the election manifesto of Thatcher's Conservative party which was assembled in the nine months leading up to the 1987 Election. During its preparation, Maclure alleges "There was a determined effort not to consult either the DES or the civil servants or the chief education officers or local politicians" in this process. Hence, it is Maclure's conclusion that political expediency overruled consensus in the matter of the passage of this significant act of reform. Holmes & Ormston (1989) go so far as to question whether the change was reform or revolution. In the event, the ideology of the local education authority (LEA) as the principal provider of equal opportunity to education was to be disposed of in favour of competition between schools as a spur to quality. A previously interdependent system was given over to autonomous units, individual schools. As Holmes & Ormston (1989:4) comment "This reform is not just about education it parallels wider political initiatives and ideologies".

The Education Reform Act ,1988

There are three key issues in the Educational Reform Act, 1988. A National Curriculum is set in place with mandatory assessment and testing of children at regulation intervals. There is to be a policy of open enrolment and parental choice of schools. Funding is delegated to schools which will each be locally managed by governors. Apart from parent and some teacher membership of local governing bodies, the Act (Section 53, p50) defines the "kind of person who may be appointed ... is a person appearing to the person appointing him to be a member of a local community who is committed to the good government and continuing viability of the school". A further requirement is the inclusion of persons appearing "to be members of the local business community".

The Local Management of Schools

A year before enactment of the Reform, the Department of Education and Science commissioned consultants, Coopers & Lybrand, whose subsequent report Local Management of Schools (1988) has given the name and initials LMS a new connotation for the English. The Report is a guide to empowerment of governing bodies. A cautionary note is struck (Coopers & Lybrand, 1988:6) by their warning: "LMS will succeed only if there is a positive attitude to it from the head, the staff and the governing body. It will require a recognition that it is school management that is needed, not simply an increase in administration".

As Maclure (1989:133) remarks, school governors emerge from this Act with "much enhanced powers and more demanding duties". They have overall responsibility for the conduct of the school, including implementation of the National Curriculum. In Maclure's (1989:140) opinion, there is scope in this for an over zealous governing body to get at cross purposes with an overzealous head. Other difficulties have been mentioned by Holmes &

Ormston (1989) and Bainbridge (1989). Holmes & Ormston (1989:18) anticipate problems as LMS moves from historic funding to formula (per capita, weighted) funding over a four year transitional period beginning in 1990. They foresee "hard pressed governors using virement from what they see as less essential budget headings, such as building maintenance or staff development, to ensure there is sufficient in the main salary budget". Bainbridge (1989:25) cites a personal communication from the Chairperson of CASE, Joan Sallis, in which she feels that the greatest danger of the transfer of power from LEA to LMS is that power will "find its way into the wrong hands". Sallis continues:

> It could find its way to head teachers. It could revert to central government. It could be seized by extremist minority groups of various kinds. The only defence, in education as in politics, against too much power at the centre, or too much power with extremists, is participation by a large number of ordinary people.

Governors

Those 'ordinary people' who become governors will need to spend more time in the school, asserts Maclure (1989:153). The extra time which office work connected with LMS will require is another problem foreseen by Maclure (1989:53).

The financial management of their school site is but one of the responsibilities of governors. The range of powers available to governors under Local Management of Schools is set out in summary, they:

- can co-opt members are responsible for main policies of their schools and for preparation of a statement of their school's curricular aims and objectives (within the national framework);
- can appoint principals, teachers and all other staff;
- can apply to 'opt out' of LEA control;
- can apply to change 'character' of a school, e.g. from a comprehensive to a grammar school;
- determine sectarian curriculum (voluntary schools);
- have ultimate responsibility for school discipline;
- are responsible for staff dismissal, suspension, retirement or redundancy;
- have largest say in the appointment and dismissal of staff; and
- decide on the Religious Education program.

To fulfil these functions, governors will have much to learn. The need for training is acknowledged by George (1985), Burgess & Sofer (1986), Bullivant (1987), Wragg & Partington (1989). Previously, Baron (1981:101) had mentioned that the Open University was funded to develop courses for governors. There are now many such courses available in England, among them one at Oxford Polytechnic supervised by Holmes & Ormston. Organisations such as CASE and NAGM produce handbooks, manuals and pamphlets which communicate information to those concerned with LMS. There has been a weekly

column in the *Times Educational Supplement* especially for Governors during the entire period of this study.

ENGLISH EVIDENCE: informants in Oxford, York and Exeter

At the time of the macro level inquiry, Local Management of Schools was being put into operation throughout the country. Although the legislation covers the Principality of Wales, no observations were undertaken there because of time and financial constraints. To cover the spectrum of English schooling;, those interviewed included academics and trainers in the Higher Education sector, headteachers and deputy principals, teachers (including two Australian exchange teachers), governors, parents and students in both government and non-government schools. There could be little doubt in those early post Education Reform Act 1988 days, that education was prominent in public concerns at the time.

Context A: Oxford

At a state school in the city of Oxford, formed as the result of merging a secondary and a grammar school some twenty years ago, the headteacher expressed this view of LMS "I regret to say the rhetoric hides where the real power is, it's with people like me". He foresaw times of great difficulty for his school but felt that "the trust, goodwill and shared vision we have here will get us out of sticky situations". However, he was not quite so sure how well financial accountability would work, although the school is already entrepreneurial through provision of facilities with public access: a library, creche, and sports/arts complex. An interesting initiative was the establishment of a formal relationship with an African school in Tanzania. The work of his governors was applauded by this head, "they are utterly supportive, absolutely dedicated and committed" he said, adding that he saw the role of his chairman as crucial if LMS is to continue to succeed in his school.

Context B: Exeter

At a small elementary school in Exeter, one parent said that she did not feel there was much enthusiasm for LMS in this location because "in the end, ordinary people round here have little influence in schools". In the opinion of one parent who is on the new and struggling governing body "the amount of work is astronomical if we do it right". This was corroborated by a teacher governor who said "enormous hours are expected outside of teaching time". She gave instances of the tasks connected with carrying out the Standard Assessment Tests (SAT) with seven-year-olds as sufficient extra work without the expectation of also helping to manage the school. Another view was that of a governor of a bigger primary school, an ex-army major, who was very keen that the powers entrusted to LMS should be used, in his words, "to bring schools into the twentieth century" . By this he explained the frustration he felt with what he considered entrenched practices of teachers, particularly headteachers,

to perpetuate a "self interested system". He felt he had "plenty of free time now" to devote to his local school and intended to use it there.

Context C: York

An independent school in this inland city was a site for inquiry. A similar institution in Oxfordshire was observed earlier. Both schools were founded over 150 years ago and are operated under the same religious aegis. The British Public School pattern was discernible in the boarding facilities, the sports emphasis, and in the traditional committees of management which control such virtually autonomous institutions. By coincidence, both the chairpersons of these committees at the time of inquiry were female. The Yorkshire committee is a joint one incorporating the governing body of a neighbouring girls' school of the same religious persuasion. The outgoing Chairman of the Committee of Management for these two schools recommended the number and composition of his governing body "there are sixteen of us, eleven are old scholars of one or other school, it's a great combination". In these schools, there is a history of long service not only among staff but also on the committee. For instance, there have only been eight chairpersons in the whole long history of the school, one served for forty years. The immediate past chairman admitted apologetically that he had only served for eight years "These days the commitment is exceptionally time consuming, especially if one is also running one's own business as a livelihood in addition to one's Board work", he said. In his opinion, reliance on the fee income forces the school to have sound financial management in place which is the responsibility of the committee. In this connection, the Oxfordshire committee authorised its headmaster to increase enrolments by promotional tours in the Far East, Asia and Europe over the past few years with positive results in additional student enrolments.

Reflections on the English Case Record

The overall governance responsibility with which each school in England and Wales is now entrusted could be viewed as almost the maximum extent of participation by local communities. It has been mandated by the Educational Reform Act 1988, regulated by Local Management of Schools, and set in place with clear guidelines for financial accountability and enhanced powers. The gestation period of devolution has been relatively long and incremental. Politicians appear to have played an increasing role in it.

Nonetheless, even some two years into the first phase of a five-year process, evidence gathered from some practitioners and consumers in this inquiry cannot be said to reach a conclusion with a unanimous verdict. In three British locations, perceptions of some of those affected by school management indicate that governors will need assistance and time to adequately fulfil their roles. That the differing agendas of professionals and lay members may conflict in the arduous process of implementing LMS is readily apparent, but there are examples of satisfactory and productive collaboration in both government and

non-government institutions. Community apathy to pursue a difficult and unpaid task could be detected, as was a fair degree of uncertainty about the future of LMS given its high party political profile.

Another perspective on LMS is the media attention accorded to concerns about quality of education and the reformed system. During the inquiry period, schooling was frequently front page news. It was the subject of front page news and of editorials (*The Times*, 1 June 1990). It featured in Letters to the Editor (*The Guardian*, 2 July 1990). On television, too, LMS has been the focus of attention. A prestige production, the British Broadcasting Corporation's 'Panorama' (11 June 1990), devoted its entire program to the concerns of competition between schools brought about by LMS. The dual role expected of head teachers (instructional leader and management executive) was raised, and viewed adversely, in this program.

Thus, there are confusing elements in the picture presented. From his observation of the National Curriculum and Assessment, Hughes (1990:17) comments that teachers have approached the former positively, and that 'people outside schools' have had frustration about quality of education allayed by promised publication of performance indicators derived from SATs. Perhaps it is too early to judge the new participatory governance system. The question as to whether British restructuring, reform, or revitalisation, will succeed is a question which educational administrators in many countries will anxiously ask as they view progress and await developments. LMS appears to be the state-of-the-art in educational self-management of public sytems at the beginning of the last decade of the twentieth century. It is of great interest to those concerned with the delivery of educational services. As with other British innovations in education, modifications to its system of managing schools are likely to impact on those countries which share its heritage.

CASE RECORD 5: CANADA

Canada is sparsely settled and widely diversified. The population includes Indians, Eskimos (Inuits), and European immigrants, especially French. This has produced a broad spectrum of ethno-cultural diversity, a "Canadian cultural mosaic ... recognized internationally for its tolerance and diplomacy" (Storey *et al.*, 1988:11).

Canadian administrative structure

The traditional form of public education in North America is essentially open, egalitarian, and democratic, characterised by responsiveness to public will. The British North America Act 1867 (Section 93), proclaimed that the Provinces "may exclusively make laws in education". In Canada, education administration is decentralised to the extent that there are twelve independent educational systems. Each of ten provinces and two Northern territories has authority to direct the educational activities within its borders, but the

Dominion government can overrule any act of a provincial government. There is a Council of Ministers of Education (from each province) to further interprovincial cooperation. Each province has a Department of Education and a Minister of Education, as do States in Australia. Nevertheless, in Canada, there is a national dimension in school governance whereby the provinces are "essentially similar'" write Lucas & Lusthaus (1981:53). Trends can be seen in the consolidation of smaller into larger units for administration, in declining school rolls and school closures, in centralisation of finance, in development of increasingly powerful teacher unions, and in confrontation by community groups.

As in the United States, there are school districts with school boards; these are viewed as supportive, facilitative structures. Their functions include teacher appointments, school maintenance, and general school policy. Independent issue-oriented groups in communities, home and school associations, and Parent Advisory Committees (PACs, composed exclusively of parents) have emerged in a number of school districts.

Community participation

Lucas & Lusthaus (1981:61) state that:

> in recent literature dealing both with school community conflict and with community development in Canada, there has been a growing realization that the 'feelings' of citizens constitute valid and essential data in planning and implementing changes which are disruptive of community values and traditions.

This may indicate that these values and traditions have been violated in some way. In this case, according to Lucas & Lusthaus, the ubiquitous problem of school closures generated conflict due to non-involvement of community in the planning process.

In 1979, the Canadian Education Association (CEA) Taskforce on Public Involvement in Educational Decisions conducted a nationwide survey (n=2033 Canadians) of public opinion concerning public involvement in educational decisions. Dissatisfaction at the meagre amount of say the public had in the running of schools was expressed by those who responded. Nevertheless, little interest was evinced in actually participating on committees or associations. The conclusion of CEA (1979:58) was that "Structures for public involvement should not be established until a specific need and willingness to participate are identified". Yet, as Lucas & Lusthaus (1981:74) comment, "much policy is developed relatively independently of actual needs in the social environment".

The Province of British Columbia

One province, British Columbia on Canada's west coast, was selected as a focus for observing school governance. Some reference for comparison is made to the neighbouring province of Alberta. The climate, geography, and industry of British Columbia are as diverse as the Province's communities themselves (Storey *et al.*, 1988:35). The Annual

Report of the British Columbia Ministry of Education (July 1989:12) states "The culture of British Columbia is more diverse than at any time in the past". The majority of immigrants ... now arrive from non English speaking countries'. Despite this, there is a strong British 'feel' to British Columbia, especially in its capital, Victoria.

There are seventy-five school districts in the province of British Columbia. In 1981, nine (mainly urban) out of the seventy-five British Columbian school districts had a mandate by law to work in an advisory capacity as PAC (Parent Advisory Committees) with education authorities in improving school programs. British Columbia claims (Ministry of Education Report, 1989:31) to have "the highest adult literacy rate of all Canadian provinces". This can be taken to represent some measure of quality outcomes in education.

In the Ministry of Education Report (1989:16) it is stated, "In September 1988, the public school system enrolled 499,994 students". Enrolment in independent schools in British Columbia increased as a percentage total of school-aged population from 3.7% in 1980/81 to 6.0% in 1988/89. There has been a steady growth in provincial population over last five years, projections indicate an 8% student increase by 1993. Schooling in British Columbia is divided into Primary (K-Grade 3), Intermediate (Grades 4-10), and Graduation (Grades 11 and 12).

An assessment of learning was conducted in the Province in 1980 which Fullan (1982: 246) finds to have been the "most systematic and thorough by far" of evaluative data gatherings in Canada. Mussio & Greer (1980:29) comment that, one of the six objectives of this assessment was to "Inform the public of some of the strengths and weaknesses of the public school system".

Sullivan Royal Commission, 1988

Among eighty three recommendations of the Sullivan Royal Commission, 1988, was one that the Minister adopt the concept of a Common Curriculum for schools in this province. The School Act 1989 which followed, focussed on student and parent rights and responsibilities. In papers written for the Royal Commission, Storey *et al.* (1988:4) state that "Schooling is a major instrument for expression of the public will in a democratic society". Identification and examination of both traditional and emerging values are sought by Storey *et al.*, who ask critical questions about personnel management, Board powers, parent and community involvement, administrative structures and goals of education. They suggest that, as the major stakeholders and the mass of public opinion hope for a change, there might be a new mandate and mission statement to British Columbians which should give the directions of educational values, purposes and concerns intellectual, vocational, social, and personal. "Without stated mandate, administrative structures can be self serving for lack of connection to the public will" (Storey *et al.*, 1988:15). This team of researchers (Storey *et al.*) visited the United Kingdom, the United

States, the State of Victoria in Australia, and other Canadian provinces. Thus, aware of the international scene in educational administration, they decided there were two separate issues: i) decentralisation of decision making to the school level, and ii) community level governance establishing educational policy. The conclusions of Storey *et al.* (1988:32) were that there was no need to change to another level of governance and public policy and decision making in British Columbia. In short, no radical changes were advocated to extant governance procedures.

After the School Act, 1989

The force of community feelings is recognised by Fleming (1990:12) who reiterates that there are "widespread public demands for greater participation in education policy making". He acknowledges issues of access to schools and the need for greater provision for parents and student choice of schools and courses. Fleming (1990:14) writes that the Royal Commission tried to understand "the nature of community sentiment" and "public aspirations for schooling" and recognised this was not specific to British Columbia alone. As editor-in-chief of their Report, it is Fleming's view that the Royal Commissioners felt "schools bring us together to preserve a sense of community which might otherwise vanish". His opinion that "as the tide of community has risen ... the power of the bureaucrats has fallen" is not easy to substantiate when observing the public education system in British Columbia.

Glickman (1990:39) is another who urges more open accountability so that policies and procedures for schools might be 'loosened up'. The impression made on the researcher is that reforms in educational administration whereby a local community participates in policy decisions, does not measure up in British Columbia to reforms in education which appear to be happening in other provinces, such as Alberta (Caldwell *et al.* 1988) or Quebec (Fullan, 1982).

Other Provincial systems

In the province of Alberta, Caldwell (1990b:313) notes a school-based decision making process which has been in operation in Edmonton Public School District since 1976. It began as a pilot project in school-based budgeting in seven schools but, since 1980, is being implemented in all two hundred of the Edmonton's school system. Caldwell comments on the flow on into areas such as resource prioritising and achievement testing, which has devolved from participation by the teachers and administrators at the school level. However no mention is made of participation in these initiatives by local lay persons, parents or community members.

Fullan (1982:250) also remarks on the innovations in Alberta and mentions similar endeavours in Quebec and Ontario. He takes note of the external review of Canadian

education (OECD, 1976) with particular reference to its comments on the lack of a national policy or set of goals for education in a country where provincial power rules in education.

CANADIAN EVIDENCE: informants in Victoria BC

The data was collected in the selected location, British Columbia, and information obtained from interviews with informants in the locality of the capital of the province, Victoria, on Vancouver Island. It is presented as evidence of perceptions on the decentralisation of educational administration and community participation in governance in Canada at the time of the macro level inquiry.

Those who were interviewed included academics in the Faculty of Education at the University, senior administrators in the Ministry, the superintendent of the School District, head teachers, teachers, students and parents. There was opportunity to visit learning institutions and to hold informal discussions with lay persons in the community during the period of data collection.

The social and economic changes of the past twenty years were acknowledged frequently here, as in other parts of the world. Mention of divorce rates and single parent families was made by several teachers. The emergence of a vocal group from the increasingly elderly population who deprecate current education standards, was apparently a pressure with which School Districts had to contend. A School District official remarked "80% of parents think we are wonderful in this District, not so the general public, especially those grey power people". The highly adversarial role played by teacher unions has been, and continues to be, a problem. A member of the Ministry staff explained that "Big, rich, powerful unions are keen to demonstrate their powers in the wake of Sullivan".

That Canada suffers somewhat "under the shadow of the U.S.A." was observed by an academic. This remark was qualified by another social scientist who expressed the view "There is a decency and lack of excess in Canada". The North American democratic tradition of elected School Board members making policy for the District is borne out in Canada. In terms of the particular District investigated during the fieldwork, that meant one School Board for some 23,000 students. This is plainly not school-site management. When the researcher questioned a Superintendent about public involvement his reply expressed satisfaction that the traditional methods of School Boards, together with the work of Parent Advisory Councils, had "ironed out the wrinkles" of active participation by community in my opinion".

However imperceptible the changes in devolution and community governance to be implemented after the Sullivan Royal Commission may have appeared, concentration on curriculum change was plainly happening. Changes were perceived by informants who were interviewed. "School work is more interesting now" said a student. "There is more support from outside" commented a teacher. "Sullivan has stimulated more attention to us" said another. A school principal observed that "Teaching is more celebrated now". As a superintendent told it

"There is more money available for the service". This was not a common comment made to the researcher, who, perhaps, only heard it otherwise in Scotland.

The period of this research inquiry was during a critical time for education in British Columbia. Sullivan's (1988) 'Legacy for Learners' was being implemented. The accepted Mission Statement acknowledged "The purpose of the British Columbia school system is to enable learners to develop their individual potential and to acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to contribute to a healthy society and a prosperous and sustainable economy".

A curriculum for elementary schools, in the form of Primary Program, had been finalised and was about to be disseminated after much deliberation. The notion of 'Parents as Partners' was a promotional factor in the proliferation of publications available with it. A role for parents and community was regarded as 'supportive' rather than active. The Intermediate Program was to be the next task, its objective was to provide alternative programs to address the high dropout rate in schools. This program was proving difficult to formulate, as an academic member of the Educational Advisory Board told the researcher, because "The biggest changes are here" for the reason that new alternative programs for those students not bound for tertiary education were required. The time frame concept of the policy directives was being adopted in the District. The Superintendent demonstrated a complete Five Year Plan. At the Ministry, an official felt that "The Sullivan Commission has been too much, too fast. I am controlling chaos here". Both of these observations indicated that finalisation of plans and programs was exclusively the prerogative of professional educators and bureaucrats now.

As with the curriculum and working plans, variations on the status quo seemed to follow in the wake of Sullivan as regards management structures, too. One academic explained "There are more ways than school-site governance to participate in educational decision making in Canada you know, there are the PACs, the District School Board, and the Education Advisory Council". This last was a large group of predominantly professional educators on which she served, though it did have some student representatives on it.

Power, to any extent, does not appear to reside in the hands of a local community. "Educators are well respected in BC" was a University staff member's comment. Although, conversely, another academic's view was that "the professionals will put it over you ,there is no devolution here, make no mistake". As to the role of Principal, one said "I have only ever wanted to be an instructional leader, school-based". While his Superintendent indicated that this Principal had "tried very hard to involve parents", the man himself was less enthusiastic about parent participation "parents never leave you alone I can cope with them, but many teachers cannot". A University Faculty member felt that "effective administrators can't be instructional leaders". This view was expressed also by District and Ministry officials. It made sense when a notable academic confirmed "provider capture' is alive and well in British Columbia, professionals command huge salaries and the unions are extremely powerful".

The public education system would appear to be well resourced in British Columbia, through Provincial block grants and local taxes, but a prevailing emphasis on 'cost effectiveness'. was discernible.

Much glossy information about the system is passed to parents. "When it comes to communication more is better" was one Ministry employee's remark. Another queried "do parents ever read them?" Dissemination of material on post Sullivan intentions is readily available. "Parents are strong allies to have and must be informed" said a District official. Two way communication was scarcely mentioned. An academic advisor felt that the community misunderstood the new assessment procedure which had been communicated to them, for "new methods are not intended as comparisons with others but as a record of achievement". Written communication alone, however attractively produced, can hardly be expected to solve this one. One slant on communication of perceptions was glimpsed through the medium of the local newspaper in the duration of the fieldwork, a feature article a feature article (Bronwyn Drainie, The *Globe and Mail*, National Edition, 10 March 1990) on education began with this vituperative commentary:

> It would be tough to find any adult Canadian who doesn't think our education system is going to hell in a basket. The business class mutter about competition from Japan and Hong Kong and says we have to get our kids back to basic (what they mean is math and computer science). Low income families watch their kids dropping daily into passive drug and video crazed zombies. The middle class sees its children growing up cool and disconnected, unimpressed by hard work or knowledge or achievement (except achievement of wealth), and it looks helplessly towards school to replace the family and ethical values that seem to have vanished while we weren't paying attention.

Reflections on the Canadian Case Record

It is difficult to relate the rhetorical phrases used by Storey *et al.* (1988), Fleming (1990) or Glickman (1990) about such matters as 'public will', 'major stakeholders', 'hope for a change', partnership for parents', 'local community ... critical unit in democratic government' to the policy statements set in place following the British Columbian School Act 1989. In practice, the governance structures and personnel appear to remain the same; that is, the authority of the Ministry of Education and Minister, School District officials and School Boards, School and professional educators, and PAC in an advisory role.

To engage in the argument put forward by Storey *et al.* (1988) for two separate issues, decentralisation and community level governance, the first has been a traditionally Canadian feature anyway, while the impact of the second, school-site government, does not appear to be interpreted in British Columbia in the ways community participation has emerged in some other provinces. Policy directions envisaged by the Royal Commission (1988) and the School Act (1989) does include, however, understanding of their roles by all participants in the school system - District School Boards, schools, parents, and community.

These roles were clearly defined by the Ministry of Education (Enabling Learners ii), 1990:45):

> for involvement of District School Boards as responsibility
> for governing their districts and schools in a cost effective manner
>
> for Schools as organisation of educational programs that meet the needs of each student, and communication with parents about student progress
>
> for Parents as supportive of the goals of education
>
> for Community as supportive of the school and family by providing a healthy and supportive comm unity environment.

While the focus on a 'Legacy for Learners' and Enabling Learners' is evidence of concern for quality education, the impression is that every aspect of education in schools is delivered by professionals. A learning environment in a school in which its local community actively participates with the professionals is not seen as part of the scene in Victoria BC, despite the democratic stance of custom and tradition. What the students need is stressed; what community needs for those students might be is strangely absent. "Parents will be told of the progress" said a teacher. Are parents and the local community aspirations being formally considered? What appears to be happening is that professionals have decided what will be provided and how it will be delivered.

Much that is commendable for learning and teaching is happening in this system. Equity is topical. French immersion programs, females in positions of power both in the Ministry, Districts and University, First Nation (indigenous people) considerations, were of concern. The stated goal of the system is 'educated citizens'. But, as regards influence by those citizens on management of education, the data collected during these particular interviews indicates that it was conspicuous by its virtual absence at the time of this research in British Columbia.

CASE RECORD 6: NEW ZEALAND

Although Britain annexed New Zealand in the 1840s (for two years it was legally part of Australia's New South Wales) and its form of government still reflects its historical associations with England, the culture of the country is conditioned by a societal egalitarianism. This may have evolved through its physical remoteness from European forbears, or it may be an indication of its more recent history in endeavouring to come to terms with multi-racial conditions.

New Zealand has a largely bicultural heritage. Traditional Maori politics network through extended families (*whanau*) to the tribes (*hapu*) and to confederations (*iwi*). Earliest traditions of political action in New Zealand were provincial and local in nature (Macpherson, 1989:8) which coincides with this aboriginal pattern. But today this

country, whose small homogeneous population of just over three million people occupy a land area about twice the size of England, has no demarcated political or social regions. Presently, however, there are conflicting opinions about aspects of this equable state, notably in relation to equity for Maoris but, also in the area of growth of wealth and power which Jesson (1987:87) refers to as New Zealand's "corporate oligarchy". Government administration has been extremely centralised, but, despite a New Zealand predilection for conformity and bureaucracy, there has also been a tradition of "extensive parental and lay involvement in school government", writes Barrington (1981:215).

There are 2700 schools in New Zealand, with a total school (including Early Childhood to Secondary Schools) population in 1987 of 747,263 students (Picot, 1988:114). There is a Government policy of mainstreaming Special Education students who would benefit from it. This signals the staged closure of selected non-residential and residential schools, special units, and classes. (Lough, 1990:46).

Phases of community participation

The 1887 Education Act set up a small central department with the belief control was being placed firmly in the hands of local authorities, but over the years which followed there was a steady erosion of local power with a concomitant growth in size and dominance of the central Department of Education. A strong expression of opinion in the 1970s (Educational Development Conference) tipped the balance towards more community involvement in decision making. Despite this, professionals gradually came to assume that the lay public was not competent to comment on education. (Macpherson, 1989:9). Writing about the 1970s, Barrington (1981:178) indicates that there was a fairly intense level of parental dissatisfaction about their powerlessness to participate in meaningful ways. In 1974 local government was reformed with an emphasis on more participatory systems Local Government Authorities Act 1974). It is interesting to compare similar local government legislation in both England and Scotland in 1973. In a comparative study of formalised parent participation in education in Western Europe, Beattie (1978:45) remarks on the 'closed professional world of education' into whose 'grand issues of principle' lay people do not penetrate. Barrington (1981:178) suspects this may have applied aptly to perceptions in New Zealand at that time, too.

An OECD (1983:19) team reported with approval on New Zealand's "educational family" which reflected "the tradition of widespread consultation and lay participation in decision making and management". The OECD Report (1983:10) held the view that "the parents, citizens, employers and workers of New Zealand appear to be reasonably well pleased with what is done for them in schools, colleges and universities". Yet, only five years later, the Picot Report (1988:36) stated "In our view the time has come for quite radical change".

Provider-capture

The genesis of that change became apparent when, in July 1984, the Labour Government under David Lange came to power. Minister of Education, Russell Marshall, set up extensive consultative exercises on educational matters. One result of this was the Scott Report (1986). It identified three major problems: 'provider-capture', excessive bureaucratic structures, and obsolescent administrative practices. In 1987, the Lange Labour Government was re-elected after a campaign on the need to make changes in the areas of health, education and social welfare. The prevailing climate of change in economic management affecting Western countries was felt in New Zealand, too. To address a fiscal policy in the face of financial crisis, Prime Minister David Lange (also Minister of Education) set up seventeen Taskforces to provide policy advice across all social portfolios. The Education Taskforce under Brian Picot reported in May 1988. By August 1988 a White Paper, *Tomorrow's Schools*, whose title became the masthead for the planned reforms in educational administration, endorsed implementation of almost all of the changes proposed by Picot, including the minor one of changing the name Department of Education to Ministry of Education, as the State of Victoria in Australia has done.

Another common factor in educational administration which New Zealand shared with other countries during the 1980s was problem with teacher unions. In New Zealand, bitter confrontations occurred between the interventionist policies of the previous National Party Government and teacher activism. This disquieted the public. Such issues re-surfaced during the animated discussions about Picot reforms. Lange sharply told New Zealand Educational Institute meeting (30 August 1988) that if teachers did not cooperate with implementation of the Picot proposals, legislation could be introduced (Macpherson, 1988:12). This response sounds reminiscent of those of Margaret Thatcher from the other side of the world. This time it was uttered by a Labour Party Prime Minister in New Zealand.

Picot proposals for reform

To achieve reform of educational administration, one of Picot's (1988:41) design principles is that decisions should be made at appropriate levels. By this Picot intends that as far as possible decisions affecting an institution should be made by that institution; 'institution' being defined as the basic organisational unit sustaining teaching, a school or college. Consequent on Picot, Caldwell (1990b:315) summarises:

> Since late 1989 each school has a school board, a majority of whom are parents, with a charter which, once approved by the Minister, provides a framework for operations. More than 90% of the costs of running each school have been decentralized to the school level in a school-based budget. The long term plan is for staff to be selected and employed by the school board (at the site level).

The significant elements in the reforms the Board of Trustees and the Charter of each institution, the national guidelines for staffing, salaries and curriculum, and the two safety nets for monitoring purposes, Community Education Forums and Parent Advocacy Councils came into operation coincidentally at almost the same time as Local Management of Schools in England and Wales.

Gauging public opinion of proposed reform

In New Zealand, an interesting process was used to gauge public opinion about the reforms. Lange invited responses to the main issues and concerns; he received 20,000 responses, a summary of which were published. Among fears expressed in the responses were those of parents who felt there was a lack of time to be involved in board activities, (Lange, 1988:5) and of teachers who did not want to be either appointed by or accountable to education 'amateurs'(Lange, 1988:7). The response indicated a wide public and professional interest in education.

Monitoring reform in progress

The Picot reforms also instigated mechanisms for monitoring and assisting the carrying out of *Tomorrow's Schools.* A Parent Advocacy Council (to mediate between clients and the Ministry, if necessary) and Community Education Forums (for debating education policies) were established. Other specialist support organisations were set up: The School Trustees Association, the Education Review Office, and a Teachers Advisory Service. Shortly after the full implementation of the reforms, a review committee (Lough, 1990) reported on the policy in practice and what changes needed to be made. Widespread support for the Picot concepts is indicated in the Lough Report although a "tough transitional period" is admitted. Another admission is a perception that an increase in 'bureaucratic control and administrative tasks has occurred, and that there has been inadequate attention to educational outcomes. Lough's recommendations include establishment of a taskforce, led by professional educators, to specify educational objectives, clarification of relative roles of trustees and principals, downsizing Ministry staff, and revision of funding policy.

Lough (1990:22) gives recruitment of their principal as the fundamental decision for Trustees. Thereafter, annual appraisal is suggested as their special role. Management of the school by that chosen principal "then becomes the principal's role, not that of the board of trustees". Does this finding foreshadow a return to 'provider capture'? Is the greater emphasis on educational outcomes by practising principals leading an Implementation Taskforce, as advised by Lough, an exclusion of wider community concerns to participate in those "grand issues of principle" (Beattie, 1978:45).

Critiques of reform

The political agenda driving reform in educational administration strikes some resonating notes in different locations albeit from differing political platforms. Connections can be found between the critiques of Retallick *et al.*, (1990) on implementation of the Scott Report (1990) in New South Wales by a conservative government, and of Rae (1989) on implementation of the Picot Report (1988) in New Zealand by a socialist government. Both parties are accused of a 'New Right' philosophy in pursuance of reform though, strangely perhaps, opposing political agendas might be expected from Liberal and Labour politicians on either side of the Tasman Sea.

Rae (1989:15) links a Treasury perspective on education costs as the heeded advice which drove New Zealand government reform. He regards this "advice to government from outside education" as "no guarantee of improved educational standards". Pressures of the time scale imposed, tension between ministry and trustees, social inequalities increased by unemployment, reallocation of existing resources, are concerns which Rae finds in *'Tomorrow's Schools'*. Deeper concern still is expressed about the change in "locus of control to community, a concept 'quite unexplored' says Rae (1989:18). This, in view of New Zealand precedents, is hard to substantiate.

A participatory role for community

The new structures which came on line in 1989 propose achievement of equity linked to effectiveness, efficiency and economy. The equity responsibilities are laid on the Boards of Trustees. The Picot proposals show the objectives of the major flows in the system to be from the Minister of Education to the Community in lines of accountability, policy, funding, service and support. Picot (1988:105) gives Community as the Authority of First Resort (see Appendix 8) The Lough Report recommendations, and critics such as Rae, could be signalling some retreat from the position of community as that first authority.

NEW ZEALAND EVIDENCE: informants in Auckland, Wanganui, Wellington, Christchurch and Dunedin

Context A. Auckland and Wanganui

Reactions to the restructuring proceeding in New Zealand was sought in interviews with academics, school principals and teachers, parents, students and interested community members in locations, Auckland, Wanganui, in addition to those three contexts the coastal cities of Wellington in the North Island, and Christchurch and Dunedin in the South which have closer congruities with Hobart Tasmania. A teacher member of Trustees in a college with an enrolment of 1.600 in Auckland, appeared disgruntled that the Picot could not be discarded, "Bureaucracy has been reconvened trying to cope with these proposals" he said. This was borne out by one of these 'bureaucrats' in Wanganui, who admitted that "there are some very disillusioned school people around. Many have just got bogged down in the minutiae of

procedures" was his comment. He added that what was required were "strong principals because Picot had shown up weaknesses in leadership".

Context B: Wellington

The capital and commercial centre of New Zealand, Wellington, was an appropriate centre in which to contact a variety of persons closely involved in implementation of Picot and to observe a variety of manifestations of response to *Tomorrow's Schools.* The principal of an Intermediate School was interviewed. He would appear to fill the role of a strong leader more than adequately as he exuded enthusiasm for the autonomy he had always craved now having being presented to him. Members of his staff obviously shared his vision. In this school, the Picot-stipulated Charter of aims and objectives had been completed, a strong Board of Trustees had been elected, financial arrangements were well in hand, decisions about mainstreaming disabled students, resource materials, maintenance priorities, new technology for office and classes were being taken. "The speed it's all happened with has been a problem" commented one teacher, who otherwise favours the reforms.

Context C: Christchurch

In this South Island city, a staff member of a teacher training college also favoured *Tomorrow's Schools,* reaffirming "it certainly is a response to people's will, there's much more accountability". In her view "this is a different system, a service role not a power situation anymore for teachers" , adding "this has affected teacher trainees as they now recognise that they will have to be proactive and self evaluative". Some student teachers "switch off and leave when they realise it will not be all done for them as in the past", the teacher trainer said.

A parent Trustee in a boys' high school commented that writing the Charter was "a whole lot of worry". His opinion was that the reforms will fail if funding for them did not improve. His concerns were not shared by a district manager who said "this system is alive, it's fun, the profession should pick it up and run with it". He also felt that "it's better to have change slow than fast". His enthusiasm was tempered by doubts as to the ability of teachers to change or to accept gaps in their knowledge of "what learning is all about". Such a challenge was accepted by the young headmistress of a large girls high school who said she welcomed the chance to "re-evaluate education". She found writing the Charter was "not just a chore to be gotten through but a dynamic document with real potential for improvement here". Her efforts with the Trustees were presently directed to recognition of excellent role models for women in education but the pressure of financial problems were presently overshadowing the activities of her Trustees.

Context D: Dunedin

In another South Island city, Dunedin, a university lecturer gave his opinion that *Tomorrow's Schools* had "disbanded too much professional knowhow". He resented the fact that

no advice was sought or tolerated in preparation of Picot reforms. He criticised the lack of time allowed for such change, "it has been too fast and too all-encompassing ". There was more criticism expressed by the middle-aged head of a co-educational high school. He saw his leadership style in the instructional mould and now feels he is being isolated by the managerial role he has to fulfil against his inclinations and outside his competencies. "I came into teaching with a vocation it was a service thing for me , now more and more the job is dollars and cents. If you're not profitable, you're out". A senior member of his staff did not altogether share this despondent view, but, as teacher representative on the Board of Trustees, he has chaired the Charter writing subcommittee and encountered problems with acceptance of it by the Ministry. The legality of such documents had not been fully investigated beforehand and many are having to be rewritten in consequence. This has incurred frustration and disappointment with Trustees. "The public will lose faith in education altogether if this goes on" said a Trustee chairperson.

Lack of patience was expressed by the headmistress of another girls' school (there is a tradition of single sex schools in New Zealand). "We had goodwill before this, we had parent involvement, we did perform well" she insisted. Her confidence that "I am the manager here" was tempered by comment that Picot allowed greater freedom from bureaucratic decision making and "has made us more aware of what we're actually doing". But her perception was that *Tomorrow's Schools* had produced a climate of distrust "it means you are not to be trusted until measured in economic terms'". This remark was in was a sharp contrast to the Principal in Wellington who relished the opportunity to budget and be accountable in his own right.

Reflections on the New Zealand Case Record

The attention which educational management was receiving in New Zealand during the inquiry for this study was quite markedly similar to that in England, and there was much to compare about the two new systems. Implementation of the Picot Report was at a quite comparable stage to LMS in England and many of the same community reactions to such radical restructuring could be heard. Instead of LMS being the topic of conversation as in England, in New Zealand, *Tomorrow's Schools* or 'Picot', seemed to be on many people's lips.

Two strands can be disentangled from the plethora of reactions which are offered as evidence about perceptions on these reforms. First, a pattern of intermittent participation by the public has been formalised into one of school-site government. Local communities have been empowered to the degree that each institution is responsible and accountable for its administration. The origin of this motif in the pattern of decentralisation can be traced not only to response by politicians to the perceived will of the people but also to change in economic management by government in New Zealand. Second, a process in which professional educators and lay administrators are formally involved in making decisions which impact on individual learning institutions.

A time factor threads through the pattern. Feelings of anxiety and impotence were expressed in the face of such rapid change, while some others welcomed speedy implementation as the imperative necessary to effect reform. Indications from the literature review that the public are not regarded as competent to comment meaningfully on education (Macpherson, 1989:9), that lay people do not penetrate into issues of principle (Beattie, 1978:45), that teachers do not want to be accountable to amateurs (Lange, 1988:7), or that such the locus of control envisaged by Picot is unexplored (Rae, 1989:18), appear to have been overridden by the *Tomorrow's Schools* structure which has allowed for full participation. However, the extent of the tasks, the logistics, and the problems set in train by implementation of the Picot proposals may have pre-empted, or at least masked, overt criticism of lay and professional collaboration on this scale by those who were interviewed during this inquiry. Commendations were frequently made on the work of Trustees by principals.

The processes involved in governing schools through Boards of Trustees were not the subject of much negative criticism provided adequate financial resources were made available. It was a perception of an imposed and imperious structure, attributed to response to community wishes, which appeared to raise ire. In the memories of many of those academics, professionals, parents, students and community members who were interviewed, there had been little dissatisfaction with structures of educational administration pre-Picot. In any event, the political decisions of the late 80s are being implemented and there are now many professionals and lay persons who find in the changes opportunities to improve the management of education in New Zealand.

Chapter 6

Meso level Inquiry

CASE RECORD 7: New South Wales

In Australia in the 1800s, the main issue in educational administration was the overall control of schools, either by the state or by the church (Hughes, 1981:134). It is clear from the Bigge Report (1820) that the influence of parents was not considered appropriate in extending the system of education in the districts and towns of New South Wales (NSW). Bigge (1820;6) advised that "as little control as possible shall be left to parents over the time, the habits or the disposition of their children". Hughes (1981:154) comments wryly that these feelings of Bigge's "still rouse some agreement in Australia".

As the state which is the birthplace of the colonial phase of the nation, New South Wales has the largest school population in Australia. It is "by tradition and structure highly centralised", comments Hughes (1981:152) but, in his view, major efforts have been made to devolve certain decision-making powers. New South Wales is now moving towards a framework of decentralistion of administrative function. This is in contrast to Victoria, its geographic neighbour, where there already is school-site government.

Both Scott (1990) and Macpherson (1989a) find the NSW State School system to be one of the largest centralised systems in the world.

> There are 2,227 schools in New South Wales in mid 1989, containing just over 750,000 students in an area covering 801,000 square kilometres. These schools are located in widely differing locations, ranging from congested premises in inner Sydney to small outback settlements. (Scott, 1990:6)

It is the view of Macpherson (1989a:2) that the public education system in NSW has a history of slow change, dynamic conservatism and bitterly adversarial industrial relations when reforms are proposed.

It should be noted that the New South Wales economy contributes over one third of the nation's national product (Scott, 1990b:276). But Macpherson (1989a:4) comments that the New South Wales Department of Education was a bigger organisation than BHP (the nation's largest private corporation). Up to 1988, its educational policy making and implementation functions were concentrated in Head Office in Sydney. Macpherson added that the concentration resulted in syllabus and resource rigidities, leading to prescription of the number of minutes to be spent per subject per week. However, Macpherson's allegations remain debatable.

In those circumstances, parents had little access to governance of public education. According to Macpherson (1989a:5), only 6 of the 2227 schools had developed school

councils. During the 1970s, there were efforts made by the Department of Education to promote parent and citizen participation in decision making at the school level with regard to school philosophy and programs, although without any degree of control over educational matters (Vacchini, 1975). These efforts were strenuously resisted by teacher unions. Such initiatives were viewed as moving away from central powers, thereby diluting professional influence.

State review of education

When the Labor Party lost the State election in March 1988, a Liberal National Coalition took over government, under Premier Nick Greiner. Dr Terry Metherell was appointed Minister for Education and Youth Affairs. Almost immediately, a Management Review was appointed to examine all aspects of the Minister's portfolio. Dr Brian Scott was appointed Director of this Review. Another Ministerial Review, under Sir John Carrick, examined the purposes of the curriculum and reported in September, 1989. Scott issued an interim briefing paper, *Schools Renewal,* in June 1989. The final report on *School Centred Education* was issued in March 1990 and, in June 1990, a report on restructuring vocational and adult education, *TAFE'S Commission for the 1990s,* was issued. Each of these documents recommends radical reform in the delivery of education and training, a subject which is seen by Scott (1990b:233) as "one of the highest social and economic priorities of the State".

NSW quality of education

Educational quality is accentuated throughout these reports. Scott views the arguments for new approaches to management as equally applicable to the general and the vocational sectors. At the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) level, the quality and relevance of courses, (Scott, 1990b:68), the quality of educational provision, and 'quality assurance' are stressed. (Scott, 1989b:41). Scott emphasises equity, defined by him as "fairness and impartiality" rather than equality, "uniformity of characteristics" (Scott, 1990b:99). As for school education, Scott (1990a) in the Foreword to his Report, says that "Quality education is a prerequisite for the nation". The objective of Scott's strategy to revitalise schools and to restructure vocational training was to build a more responsive system. Scott saw a clear need to change dramatically the system of educational administration as it appeared to him in the late 80s in NSW. He gave as his reasons:

> In particular, the assumption that has guided the development of the New South Wales State school system for more than 100 years namely, that the quality of school education is best achieved through a centralised system is no longer valid for a modern, technologically advanced state.
>
> (Scott, 1990a:xiii)

> There is an urgent need for fundamental adjustment of TAFE's management structures and administrative procedures, and for a complete review of the structure and content of courses and the means by which they are delivered.
>
> (Scott, 1989b:9)

Community concerns, expectations, and involvement

Scott (1989b:8) cites "heightened community concern and expectations about practical outcomes" as one of the insistent and inescapable pressures facing TAFE. The review concluded that the composition and role of community advisory bodies (Councils or Committees in this sector) should operate at the level of networks or groups of member training colleges, not, as presently operated, individual college-site councils. This is in contrast with his recommendation for general school education. There it was recommended that it should be the school, not the system, which is the key organisational element providing teaching and learning. The best judges of its needs are the teachers and community of individual schools, according to Scott (1989a:6). This is because "every school is different and therefore has different needs" (Scott, 1989a:5). The basic premise for reform is recognising variations between schools, and encouraging them to be different. The aims of school renewal include promotion of more active involvement by the community, parents and industry in the delivery of education. Scott (1989a:9) gives a structure for support of a school (see Appendix 9) which envisages it as becoming "an effective locally managed educational unit operating within clearly defined guidelines". The four groups who expected to provide support include 'Parents and Community'. Their support is envisaged as provision of advice, specific expertise and planning assistance.

The prospect of school councils

Scott (1990a:29) remarks on the aversion in NSW to local school governance. This contrasts with a tradition which exists in other parts of Australia and in New Zealand. Although he does not advise mandatory introduction of school councils, Scott (1990a:76) recommends that the *School Renewal* plans in every school should include initiatives to encourage the formation of a school council. He goes on to detail functions, procedures, accountability, size and membership for such proposed councils. These were further spelled out by the Director General of School Education (Sharpe, 1990) in a document issued in June 1990. Scott (1990a:79) sees School Councils as becoming "an effective mechanism for community support" of the school renewal which his Report recommends. Discussion, support, and evaluation of the *School Renewal* plans are suggested functions for projected school councils. Authority to assist in the process of selection of a principal and broad allocation of school budgets is also envisaged (Scott, 1990a:77). The benefits of community 'involvement' are clearly endorsed by Scott (1990) and Sharpe (1990), but 'involvement' apparently falls short of 'participation'.

Critiques of education restructuring in N.S.W.

The revitalisation strategies which Scott proposed are evaluated by Macpherson (1989a:10) as reasonably consistent with the plural interpretations of the context in which education operates. Among contributory factors to the plurality, Macpherson includes disquiet about public schooling, diverse values in society, calls for greater responsiveness, economic problems, and politicians use of education as a vehicle for social and economic policy. While Macpherson (1989a:14) finds support for Scott's recommendations, he is uncertain about the effect they will have on industrial relations.

In both sectors, school education and vocational training, Scott proposed changes in the distribution of power. He advocated much leaner central or head office management, more responsibility and accountability for site managers' principals and leaders. Retallick *et al.* (1990:7) regard the proposed managerial model of leadership and the performance based culture (which they see as the product of *Schools Renewal,)* as having embedded within it "the discourse and ideology of the New Right". As such, they are critical of Scott for legitimating such values and they question whether the best interests of students and teachers are served by these means. They see Scott's primary focus for the ends of education as being efficiency, effectiveness and economy of means. Retallick *et al.* (1990:14) express scepticism as to whether such means will result in better teaching and learning. In their estimation, the Scott Report fails to specify performance indicators with which to assess implementation of its strategies.

Other criticisms have been voiced, notably on the cost of producing the Scott Report. *The Sydney Morning Herald* (15th October 1990) reported that the original budget of $1.1 million dollars has been exceeded by another $1.2 million and may reach over $3 million in the final analysis. A professional journal, *The Australian College of Education News* (November 1990:5), also reported on the cost of the Scott Report as "estimated to more than double its original budget figure".

Restructuring and revitalising education in NSW

The main recommendations for restructuring school education are currently being implemented in line with the five-year timetable projected by Scott (1989a:389). Specific aspects of the program are school, regional, cluster and central executive management; policies for resources and administrative systems; finance and budgeting procedures, and communication of programs. Parents and the Community are regarded as part of the school support structure (see Appendix 9). The government department responsible for delivering school-level education has been renamed the Department of School Education. Two review

bodies, an External Council of Review and a Community Consultative Group, have been established to report on a regular basis to government and communities respectively. The restructuring of the TAFE system has a three-year timetable for implementation in the expectation that the system "should move quickly to shorten its lines of authority, simplify its reporting structures, and devolve decision making out to the field" (Scott, 1990b:249). Some 357 recommendations prescribe how to implement the building of a dynamic vocational education and training enterprise for the 1990s.

The context in which these reforms are placed can be seen as an important factor. In an edited, newspaper version (*Sydney Morning Herald* 20 September 1990) of a speech given to the NSW Institute of Administration, the former Minister of Education, Terry Metherell, expresses the view that "Australia's great strengths are our democracy, our shared culture of freedom and choice, our strengthening belief in education", adding:

> The free movement of people and free markets for goods and services are foundations of democracy. But free people and free markets presuppose freedom of ideas and the free transmission of knowledge, the essence of modern education and media functioning properly.

Dr Metherell finds the growth of Asian dominance in the evolution of the world economy towards the 21st century to be "a phenomenal change in our region". In his opinion, Australia's participation in it will depend on "the quality of our education". He advises that teachers and educational administrators must be more positive in their thinking and working, and change the cynicism and negativism of their unions because, he says, "These vital people have so much reason for optimism and excitement as our schools and universities renew and our TAFE colleges restructure".

New South Wales Evidence: informants in Wollongong

Considerable operating autonomy has been allocated to the ten regions in the NSW public education system through the reforms of Scott (1990a:70). One of these, the South Coast Region, stretches along the coast from just south of Sydney to Cooma, on the northern Victorian border. The coastal city of Wollongong is the centre of this region. Australia's major coal and metal industries are located in the region so it is, as Robinson (1977:24) points out, an area of vital importance to the economic stability of the nation. Besides the industrial complex, there is much picturesque rural scenery, forests and beaches in the region. As manufacturing and mining are decreasing, there has been an increase in the service and tertiary sector, according to Robinson (1977:252). Wollongong has a university, a port, and is a tourist centre. Its somewhat larger population (174,620 to Hobart's 127,140) has a considerable ethnic mix.

In the South Coast Region there is a total of 217 schools. There are 170 schools in Wollongong with a student enrolment of 62,440 (ABS, Illawarra Statistical Division).

Enrolments in non-government schools have gradually increased from 15.2% of total in 1976 to 20.9% in 1989. This is 7% below the 27.9% in NSW as a whole (ABS School Statistics, 1990). The former district inspectorate function no longer exists. It has been replaced in each region by 'clusters' of schools (approximately 14 schools in each cluster). Each cluster has a Director. In an interview with one of the Cluster Directors, it became clear that none of the schools in his Cluster had a School Council but "I intend to start a program to inform communities about the possibilities of councils next term", he said. A parent in one of this Cluster's schools gave her view that "parents are on the fringes of the new system". In a student's opinion "it's time the system was relaxed so we can give our views as consumers". It was pointed out by a teacher in a public school in Wollongong which had just celebrated its centenary, that his school owed its foundation to the pioneering work of a local blacksmith who canvassed long for a convenient school for his children and those of his neighbours. He queried how many schools in the Colony had been started in this way. "I guess we owe it to the Joseph Keegans [the blacksmith] to recognise the importance of parents in schooling still", he added reflectively.

Reflections on New South Wales Case Record

There is a sparsity of documentation showing community involvement over the years in NSW. From the beginning of the last century, when parents were not considered appropriate to influence education (Bigge,1820:6), through the burgeoning colony's establishment of schools (some, as noted above, at the behest of parents) to the present time when the N.S.W. Director General (Sharpe, 1990:1) gives the prospect of formation of school councils as "a positive means of forging clear links between schools and their local communities", it can be seen there has very slow progress towards participatory school governance.

The Public Instruction Act 1880 made education compulsory for 6-14 year olds. It established the Department of Education and the Ministry of Education. It also made provision for the establishment of Parent and Citizens Associations to promote the interest of schools by bringing parents, citizens, pupils and teaching staff into closer cooperation. However, a distinction between the functions of these associations and the work envisaged for school councils should be made clear. The tasks undertaken by the former can be illustrated by a list given in the *Centenary History* of the aforementioned Wollongong school: marking the school crossings, constructing the tennis court, introduction of the non-compulsory school levy, staffing the school canteen. The role planned by Sharpe (1990:3) for school councils includes - representation on interviewing panels for selection of a principal, assessment of a school's financial needs and broad budget priorities, advice on efficiency of school staff, determination of the aims and educational goals of the school. These are distinctly different functions than those envisaged for Parent and Citizens Associations.

Activity of those who are in the political domain is evident in New South Wales' educational administration, as in other settings that have been investigated and recorded. While Scott (1990b:233) gives education as "one of the highest social and economic priorities of the State", Macpherson (1989a:10) finds that politicians have shown fresh willingness to use education as a vehicle for social and economic policy. Scepticism (Retallick *et al.*, 1990:14) about Scott restructuring having positive results for learning and teaching in schools, or providing performance indicators, is not found to be readily defensible in the light of the monitoring mechanisms Scott (1989a:389) has set in place: an Indicative Implementation Timetable, an External Council of Review and a Community Consultative Group.

The time-line given for formation of school councils is progressive over the five year implementation period. Scott (1989a:40) aims "to bring substantial benefits to all involved in, or associated with, State school education in New South Wales". For parents and the community, Scott's strategy is intended to give greater confidence in schools through more responsive management approaches and a clearer appreciation of performance capabilities.

CASE RECORD 8: Victoria

In Australia, education is a state responsibility. Until the early Seventies, public systems across the States were almost uniformly highly centralised. Caldwell (1990b:309) explains that while South Australia and the Australian Capital Territory may have led the way in giving greater autonomy for educational administration to schools, the most marked devolution of school governance took place in the State of Victoria. This view is corroborated by Kemmis (1988:5) who says "Victorian education has led the way in Australia by being more ready to devolve responsibility for judging the quality and needs for improvement in schooling than any other system in Australia".

A Victorian pattern

Legislation for the establishment of School Councils for each school (1975) and for participation of those Councils in the selection of senior staff (1984) was a major development in involvement of professionals and lay persons at the local level in that State (Chapman, 1985).

By the Eighties, however, Caldwell (1990b:309) acknowledges that "a significant shift of a centralizing kind" in state-wide curriculum frameworks, also in state and regional strategic plans and accountability systems had taken place This parallels Commonwealth initiatives for tighter accountability for Federal funds. However, central functions have not precluded a Victorian emphasis on school-site government in terms of decision making which involves program budgeting and community participation. Clearly, there has been a

recognition in Victoria that there needs to be, as Kemmis (1988:6) expresses it, "a new pattern of resolution of the tensions between accountability and improvement, centralisation and devolution", and also "independent judgement and participation in decision making". Kemmis (1988:21) concludes that educational evaluation and school monitoring should avoid relying solely or extensively on methods which, among others, "serve 'decision makers' outside the settings in which the activities are to be conducted at the expense of rational and collaborative decision making within those settings".

Among the three states chosen for inquiry during this study of governance, it would appear fair to conclude that Victoria has led the way in implementing decentralisation and devolution in a consistently participatory way.

Participation in decision making in Victoria

In introducing his Ministerial Papers (1985), Robert Fordham delineates the philosophical principles upon which the State system in Victoria is based. These principles are involvement of the community in participative, collaborative decision making, and equality of opportunity for all students to achieve success. How these principles underpin the system is set out in six Papers variously entitled *Decision Making, School Improvement Plan, State Board of Education, School Councils, Regional Boards, Curriculum Development and Planning*. Each of these areas implicates members of school councils in specific ways. In particular, Councils are seen in Paper 4 (1985:4.5) as having "major responsibility for deciding the educational policies of their schools". The Government, according to Fordham (1985:4.5) sees "genuine school community interaction as essential". Its aim is to increase the prospect of whole-hearted support for policies through a process of consultation and negotiation, taking account of the values and goals of those vitally affected.

Precisely how this responsibility would be exercised may be assessed by how these underlying principles are implemented in practical terms. In the Victorian system, the function for professionals - principals and school staff - is given as the choice of educational means of realising council policy. Professional autonomy has to be reconciled with client confidence and support. It is stated in Paper 4 (1985:4.7) that teachers "will need to be conscious of their obligations to report on, explain, and advocate their educational approaches to their communities". School Councils are expected to ensure that their schools' policies enhance the educational opportunities for all students. An annual report, including an audited financial statement, is a statutory requirement of School Councils. The Ministerial Papers point to the interdependence of community, teachers and students. A Schools Councils and Participation Unit has been established to assist councils with the task of developing new attitudes and skills for the style of management envisaged by the Minister. The functions of this Unit include training workshops, consultancy services, and

provision of information. A Council Services Unit Report (1986:46) notes the maintenance of a registry of school council constitutions, orders, and membership, and co-operation with each region's School Council Liaison Officers.

Decentralisation of the curriculum

In Victoria, a significant area that calls for a working partnership between community and professionals is curriculum development. The following definition of curriculum is given in the Victorian *School Curriculum and Organisation Framework: P - 12* (1988:8):

> The term 'curriculum' covers all arrangements the school makes for students' learning and development. It includes the content of courses, student activities, teaching approaches, and the ways in which teachers and classes are organised, it also includes decisions on the need for the use of facilities.

The term 'school community' is later given a useful description in this document (1988:96) as "all who are directly involved with a particular school, and includes students, parents, teachers, principals and school councillors". Similar clarity is accorded all aspects of curriculum development in this document, from setting goals, through making policy, to planning, resourcing, implementing, and evaluating programs. The expectation is expressed that increased participation in all of these processes will "improve the quality of education planning and provision" (*School Curriculum and Organisation Framework: P - 12* , 1988:8).

In a study whose purpose was to examine the effects of decentralisation on the curriculum in three Australian states (one of which was Victoria), Sturman (1989:228) finds that although teachers and administrators agreed that parents and the community have little impact on instructional policy *per se,* school administrators perceived that school councils are influential in the curriculum area. However, Sturman adds that teachers considered that the parent/community input to curriculum was "virtually nonexistent" (Sturman, 1989:229), although he finds that teachers were not averse to external advice (Sturman, 1989:240). An indirect but strong influence that school councils, as constituted in Victoria, may have on the curriculum is cited by Sturman as their involvement in the selection of the school principal, whose potential to affect the curriculum is found to be considerable.

Sturman (1989:236) comments on the recent decentralisation reforms in Victoria as reflecting "a complicated mix of emphases on both accountability and devolution". He points out the differences between schools, between regions, and between rural and urban areas, all of which impact on findings as regards decentralisation issues. Sturman (1989:243) finds very little evidence that the community has made any direct contributions to the organisation of curriculum in schools. He concludes that school councils are reactive rather than proactive. In Sturman's view, any perceived influence from councils may stem

from the obligation to involve them in discussions about running the school. Sturman postulates that community influence does not have to be focussed through councils but can emerge through professional notice being taken of the values and attitudes of the community. This demonstrates, once again, a view of the predominant role of professionals in every aspect of education. What clearly follows from that position is a subordinate, supportive role for the laity. Sturman acknowledges the advantages which might accrue from partnership between schools and their communities in terms of support.

Lay support for education

It might be as well to interject that, as Beare (1987:5) points out, it is the Minister of Education who is the lay head of the public education system. As such, that incumbent must be very responsive to community pressures and to lobbying. Nonetheless, the Minister shapes the agenda for education within the State and relies on support for implementation. Appreciation of a supportive climate lends some recognition to students' need for such an essential element in any learning environment. The negative view of community participation in Sturman's study may exemplify conservatism in Australian educational administration. It certainly highlights professional dominance persisting in the relatively short period of time since School Councils came into operation in Victoria. It portrays a lack of community involvement and, to some degree, community apathy, in the face of the limited influence called for in a supportive capacity.

As a strong advocate of community participation in governance, Beare (1987:6) cites findings of the landmark studies of Coleman (1966) and Jencks (1973) to illustrate the profound influence which parents and the home environment have on the learning child. These reinforce his contention that the movement for parent and community participation in Australian school governance is a right, and that education cannot proceed effectively without it. Further, Beare (1987:8) advises that the reconstruction of education must not be frustrated by conservatism. Kirner (1987:15) is another who expresses a view that "education is a human affair and to be well directed it needs both the expertise of the professional and the experience, in human affairs, of the parent and of the community".

In the State of Victoria, an incremental implementation of devolution through involvement of the community can be sensed from the initiatives such as the Home School Interaction Project (1977). This proved to be a forerunner for helping parents to gain skills in effective participation in education. As Chrispeels (1981:46) explains, "parents, through participation on the Steering Committee, have been able to develop their skills so that they can help other parents become effective participants in schools". It is Chrispeels' view that parents in this project gained not only an understanding of the system but learned how to change it. Networking such as this has been a feature of the Victorian participatory agenda. Another example is the School Community Development Program (1986) which aims to work through a network of school council representatives to develop collaborative

decision making and to promote the active redress of disadvantage and discrimination. Kirner (1987:16), whose involvement in parent bodies from 1972 up to the commencement of a parliamentary career which has culminated in her position as Premier of the State of Victoria, advises that "teachers, principals, and their organisations, bureaucrats, and politicians who support parent's organisations claim that participation is to ensure that each child is successful, will find parents powerful allies".

Victorian Evidence: Informants in Geelong

Administration of the public education system in Victoria is divided into 12 regions, 7 in metropolitan Melbourne and 5 country regions. Geelong is the centre of the Barwon-South-Western Region. As the largest provincial city in Victoria, with a population just under 200,000, Geelong has been a prosperous economic centre. Its seaport, topography and educational culture resemble those of Hobart.

The locating of both a university and an institute of educational administration in Geelong could be expected to contribute to awareness of management strategies in learning institutions in this area. This notion did not meet with agreement. One educationalist who was interviewed and whose opinion was "these institutions just happen to be sited here, they are not used extensively by local principals". He attributed Victoria's progressive devolution to the pressures exerted by parent organisations and teacher unions. He was insistent that it was unlike the United States model in that the first order stakeholders in Victoria are the parents and teachers, with business and industry being regarded as secondary. However, the significance of commercial and industrial sponsorship, especially in times of economic stringency, was considered a prime necessity by some school councillors who were interviewed. One school councillor's comment was "we need business on side, bureaucrats and academics are out of touch with where it's at now", Nonetheless, a senior lecturer in education gave politics and legitimation in the context of local tradition as the driving forces in decentralisation in Victoria, as, in his view, they are in other locations, too.

A teacher/school councillor, who is coordinator of a Shared Campus (a collaborative approach to curriculum by three post-primary schools) gave his view that devolution "is not a people's movement , quite the reverse, it's been imposed for economic reasons, but that's a fact of life, now isn't it?". He finds parent apathy to be a fact of life, too, "round here they are too busy, too tired, not interested but ready to leave education to the professionals". He praised and admired the drive of the female, lay president of his council who had forged links with local industry to the extent of establishing, among other benefits, scholarships for students.

At the centre which supports councils in this Region, a school liaison officer expressed enthusiasm for the work of councils in Victoria. "They have the greatest potential of any single strategy to change and improve education", she said. She recognised apathy as a hindrance, but aimed to counteract it in her busy schedule by dissemination of information

and advice on activities designed to communicate better with local communities. She felt that these motivated a community to participate in their learning institutions. Her particular focus is empowerment of students as School Councillors so that education may become more responsive to its clients. In her work she has found that students have made remarkable contributions which have been accepted by professionals. The liaison officer is convinced that this has encouraged parents and other community members to take greater notice of School Councils and to become involved as a consequence.

Reflections on the Victorian Case Record

Although it is evident that the incremental progress of devolution is at a point in Victoria where there is considerable opportunity for participation by communities in their local institutions, there is a dichotomy in this State between the empowerment signified and the reality of its exercise. In Victoria, although legitimation and regulation have contributed to a situation in which school councils can be key decision making bodies for education, there appears to be a tendency to leave education to the professionals. As a senior teacher in a Geelong High School commented, "people seem to feel that teachers are well enough paid so can deliver this mysterious product, education, without outside help".

Clearer articulation of quality outcomes for students that could be expected from community participation may be needed. The present accent on quantitative output in the form of financial accountability, necessary though that is, may be overshadowing the benefits to be derived from truly participatory school governance in the form in which Victorian communities are already empowered.

In Victoria, the documentation available to the community on participatory governance does appear to be unambiguous. A Ministry of Education pamphlet, *An Introduction to School Councils* (1990), succinctly defines the background, legislation, membership qualifications, responsibilities, and support systems provided. In particular, the membership structure is noted as flexible, although guidelines suggest that parents will comprise no less than half a primary school's council, or one-third a secondary college council. As regards staff members, there should be no more than half of a primary, one-third of a secondary college council, in the membership. At least two students are to be representatives on secondary college school councils. The document (1990:7) suggests that "Up to one-fifth of the total membership may be appointed by **co-option** to the council".

Thus the potential exists in Victoria for quite major influence to be exerted by local communities on their schools. Within State guidelines, it is possible for them to establish objectives for individual institutions and to select senior staff to match these goals. Strategies to aid processes of planning and management tasks associated with finance, resources, curriculum and student management are in place. Despite the existence of a substantial level of participatory democracy, political rhetoric about parents as powerful allies with experience in human affairs, and affirmations by educationists of the many

benefits from the right to participate, are negated by community apathy. Although there may be some familiar arguments - economic imperatives driving reforms, teachers claiming non-existent parental input, or communities making little direct contribution to schools - the fact remains that in the State of Victoria, there are over 2,100 school councils. There is also an infra-structure to guide the processes of participation. The Victorian pattern of legitimation and political regulation appears to be in line with the pattern of restructuring educational systems evident in England and New Zealand.

CASE RECORD 9: Tasmania

The insularity of Tasmania renders it distinctive from the rest of Australia. An aboriginal population of some 2000 were living on this island when the first settlers arrived in 1803. For over fifty years from that date, the colony developed notably as a penal settlement. Transportations of convicts from England peaked in 1842 with the arrival of 5392 convicts. A free settler population grew as private capital was invested in the colony. By 1885 transportation ceased and Tasmania received full self-government. In the State, up to that time, there were still property qualifications for voting, though Tasmania has contributed to democratic practice through experimentation with proportional representation. In 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia came into existence (Shaw, 1972). The authoritarian and hierarchical elements of such a history might be expected to persist, perhaps especially in isolated locations such as Tasmania. As Conway (1971:24) comments: "The eastern colonies at the time of self government were still raw young societies, but slowly moving towards a natural stratification in which education, skill, and a little capital were becoming the determinants of status".

Phillips (1985:5) agrees that, as the 'upper classes' owned the larger parts of Tasmania's resources they exerted the greatest political and social influence, but he sees changes from the conservative thought of the 'mother country' by settlers who had journeyed far from it. Privilege extended to the Church and acceptance of imperial government were not strong features of the new colony. Phillips (1985:9) finds that little was done during those early colonial years for the education of Tasmanian children. He does acknowledge the developments of private schools during this time; even some on the British Public School model. That heritage obviously continued to have influence.

Thomas Arnold, second son of Arnold of Rugby, came to the Colony as an Inspector of Schools (1850-1856) in the government system. His Report (1852) showed that only one in twelve of the Tasmanian population attended school. As Phillips (1985:27) comments, Arnold was "a little surprised" at the conditions to be found in an English colony "for in many respects the organisation of education in Tasmania was modelled on England's system". Arnold's "overriding aim was to bring the children of the poor and the labourers to school" says Phillips (1985:28). An Education Act (1866) provided for compulsory attendance. It is the basis of the Tasmanian claim to be the first colony in the British

Empire to make education compulsory. This claim, though 'incontestable', according to Phillips (1985:56), is hollow because "it did not raise the level of interest in the community as some had hoped". Phillips (1985:48) notes that in 1874, Philip Smith, "a wealthy pastoralist and Parliamentarian" expressed his "deepest conviction that Government Education of the Colony is in a very unsatisfactory condition and requires immediate amendment". The Education Act (1885) established an Education Department responsible to a Minister of the Crown with a permanent Director as chief executive.

In a preface to his history of Tasmanian State Education 1839-1985, Phillips (1985) gives this brief overview of its significant features:

> the increasing tendency towards the centralising and systematising of education in the decades before the 1885 Act: the torpor into which the Education Department slid for two decades thereafter and its recovery under the stimulus of New Education ... slow development of the system and the start of experimentation in a period of economic depression; the reorganisation and extension of the system and innovation in curriculum in the post-war years.

The shared heritage

Among the provisions of the 1885 Act was one that education should be free, compulsory and secular. This resonated with the tone of other States legislation at the time. As Phillips (1985:73) points out:

> Not only was education in the Australian colonies advanced or retarded by what was known of recent developments in other colonies and overseas but there was a strong tendency for each to copy the policies of the others, select parts which were suitable, adapt them and incorporate them in to regulations or legislation. Tasmanian newspaper readers were kept informed of the Victorian Royal Commission of 1867 during its sessions and after, for example, and a great deal of the legislation in the sixties concerning education and charitable institutions duplicated English legislation, Usually, outside influences on Tasmanian educational thought were less obvious, but in a general sense it is fair to say that Tasmania, like the other colonies, chose not to produce its own remedies for its own educational problems and relied heavily on the experience of other countries. The modifications and adaptations of that experience was usually undertaken not because it was thought that Tasmania being different in its social composition, for example, from England, should adapt accordingly, but because of problems over finance.

Comparison with other countries continued to be made. In 1902, a New Zealand Inspector of Schools, Peter Goyen, was commissioned to study education systems in that country and in Australian States including Victoria and New South Wales. His report showed Australian education in a very poor light compared to New Zealand's. Goyen's view, quoted by Phillips (1985:84), was that everybody in New Zealand was interested in education, because everybody shared in its management. Goyen's reported comments on the Tasmanian Boards of Advice were to the effect that they had "not a whit of influence, whether for good or evil".

The 'New Education' movement, to which Phillips (1985) alludes, began early in the twentieth century. Among its manifestations were educational developments such as training courses for teachers, play as a learning method for younger children, facilities for vocational and rural education. The New Education Fellowship, which originated in England in 1921, held conferences in Australia during the Thirties. One was held in Hobart in 1937. These conferences stimulated Australian educators, but they heard severe criticisms of their centralised system made by visiting speakers. Criticism was made by a particular professor from the United States, whose remark is quoted by Phillips (1985:217), about "the complete and universal absence of a feeling of ownership or control of the schools by the people". Phillips (1985:254) adds that the American was especially critical of the private schools and their 'old boy' network.

Other views on the schools in that non-government system, which had grown exponentially alongside the government system, have been expressed by educationists visiting Australia. For instance, Theodore Sizer, when addressing a joint meeting of Headmasters and Headmistresses of the Independent Schools of Australia which took place in Hobart in 1981, complimented those present on their leadership, which, according to Hogg (1986:261), he found "striking ... abler than their American counterparts". In giving his reasons for this opinion, Sizer remarked that none of the members of these two august associations, in talking to him, had "referred to herself [sic] as a manager but rather as a teacher with broader responsibilities". Sizer saw them as instructional leaders.

Although these non-government institutions may have developed their own colonial cultures, their roots in the British Public School system can scarcely be disguised. This very factor may have contributed to approbation by their colonial clients. Educational quality, in particular leadership of these schools from the time of their foundations, depended heavily on growth out of the English stem to which they were grafted. The works of Hansen (1971) and Hogg (1986) exemplify English leadership, as Given (1988:23) comments:

> A concept of a typical Australian leader emerges from Hogg and Hansen: one born in England; educated in a select boarding school; a product of Oxbridge where almost invariably a Blue was attained (even if not a degree); military service; and travel which included colonial Australia and New Zealand. These have been the recognised qualifications for leadership.

It is indisputable that this non-government system is attractive to Australians. Whereas, in 1970 21.8% of the Australian school population attended non-government schools, by 1990 this figure had risen to 27.9%. In Tasmania, 15.5% of children were educated in Tasmanian independent schools in 1970 but, in 1990, the proportion of school students attending non-government schools was 22.6% (see Appendix 10).

Social effects are felt by government and non-government systems alike. The Depression had a deep effect on Tasmanian schooling, especially as regards retention of students, exodus of teachers from the State, and the parlous Tasmanian economy, says Phillips (1986:230-34). However, the emergence of notable 'home grown' educators, such as G.V. Brooks or Amy Rowntree, marked a period of reorganisation up to and during the second world war. This led into that phase of the Tasmanian system which Phillips (1986) describes as innovation in curriculum. Again, there are parallels with developments in systems elsewhere. Visitations by overseas educational experts continued. Phillips (1986:276) notes visitors in the Sixties included those with "very broad outlooks" who managed to expand educational horizons in this outpost of Western culture. While exposure to new teaching methods may have stimulated Tasmanian professionals, the same momentum does not appear to have been generated to lift the apparent apathy of the community towards participation in management of schools. It appears to have continued in a markedly centralised fashion along with political inactivity with regard to changing it. An Education Act in 1932 became the statute which, with subsequent amendments, was to be the extant legislation from that period to the present day.

To sum up to this point is to identify the British heritage in schooling systems which developed in one of England's farthest colonies, Tasmania. This is not to ignore the independent spirit and thought which Phillips has acknowledged, or the interdependence of the States within Australia, or interconnections with neighbouring New Zealand. Nor is it to dismiss the critical impact which expertise from the United States may have dispensed either. It is intended that this brief overview will indicate the derivation and composition of educational administration in Tasmania before turning attention to the significance of the educational service to the inhabitants of Australia's island State and its community.

Community involvement in Tasmanian education

Local School Boards came into existence as a result of the 1868 Act, but their powers were minimal. Central control continued throughout the century despite establishment of Boards of Advice or expression of late nineteenth century views, cited by Phillips (1985:77), "that local communities should be involved in bringing education to a district and making it serve the district's needs". He says that the main concern of local boards at the time was not with educational quality but with oversight of compulsory attendance in schools in the first place.

More adverse comment was made by another visitor to Tasmania, American Professor Freeman Butts, who commented on the centralised system he observed. He noted the lack of involvement of parents in schools, except as fundraisers. Freeman Butts (1961:19) asked: "why it was assumed that parents and citizens have so little to offer with respect to

such major decisions as the goals of education, the curriculum, the buildings, the staffing and the quality of the educative process itself?"

Although he looked for a balance between government, professional teachers and the community in the democratic process of decision making, Freeman Butts failed to find much 'democracy in education' in Australian systems. This view was reinforced later by Thomas in his minority report to the *School in Society* 1968. Thomas (1968:45) complained of the "mediocrity, conformity and rigidity" of the Tasmanian system. Similar views were formed by Pusey (1976). He found the fixed patterns of behaviour, norms, procedures and methods to be stultifying students and teachers relationships so that there appeared to be no sense of community in schools. Pusey (1976:65) investigated an apparent inability of the Tasmanian Education Department "to bring its work into line with its own policy statement". In the following examination of some Department policy statements concerning community involvement in education, attention is drawn to relevant educational reports.

***The School in Society*, (Hughes, 1968)**

Among subjects investigated by this Committee was the public perception of the school in providing for children's growth areas, including social, moral and spiritual development. The response from the public to a survey questionnaire was "far below expectations" (Hughes, 1968:68) but its findings were taken to indicate that "the public sees the school as having a very wide and a very considerable responsibility for the total development of the child" (Hughes, 1968:74). At the same time, this committee (Hughes, 1968:16) acknowledged the family as the chief formative influence in the child's early years. Another interesting observation by this Committee (Hughes, 1968:32) was that "teachers as a group, shaped and surrounded by tradition, are conservative and resistant to change". As a notable protagonist for parent participation in schools, Professor Hughes, a native Tasmanian, has publicly stated (*The Bulletin*, 23 May, 1989):

> The weakest element of the system is the degree to which the community is involved in decision making, parent groups don't play the part they could and ought to. Traditionally, parents have been involved in fairly limited ways, like what sort of uniform will the school wear and when will the school fete be.

The Committee on Primary Education (COPE), 1977

The critical nature of good leadership in schools is underwritten by COPE (1977:46) in saying that leadership is expressed "not only through the role of the principal, though this is pre-eminent, but also through the contribution of others in the school community". Just who those 'others' might be is not clear in COPE, though it might be suspected 'school community' is regarded as the professional community of the institution. The centrality of the child as a basis of all relationships between her parents, teachers and the community is

stressed by this Committee (COPE, 1977:1). There is a recommendation that teachers should encourage parents as partners in school activities (COPE, 1977:97). However, as Phillips (1986:291) points out, COPE allowed that "the teacher was to remain the judge of the child's progress" who alone "was able to decide which experiences were of educational significance". A sequel to this report, *Our Children: The Future,* 1991, affirms the principles of COPE in stating that "parents are a vital part of the educative process" (1991:2).

Tasmanian Education: Next Decade Committee **(TEND, 1978)**

As its title implies, the TEND Report was to be the blueprint for education in the Eighties. The report (1978:13) commented on a tendency to reduce the prescriptiveness of central authority over the previous decade and an increased school responsibility for determining the curriculum. Apparently what was meant was that the school-site professionals now had exclusive determination of it. Phillips (1986:289) comments that while teachers were willing to share statements and objectives with other teachers and the community, and to make the outcomes of evaluation available to the administration, "they were not attracted to the idea that the outcomes should be made known to the community".

One interesting recommendation of TEND (1978:23), remarked upon by Phillips (1986:362), was the suggestion that "a lengthy social and ethical analysis of Tasmanian life" be undertaken to form part of the curriculum in values education. Phillips comments "Previous reports had looked upon Tasmania as an appendage to Western European culture". There is no record of this suggestion being followed up.

Secondary Education: The Future **(1987)**

This brief policy statement sets out principles that the Minister for Education in his Foreword to it writes, "should be sufficiently flexible to respond promptly to the changes that take place in our community". The document was issued at the end of the time frame envisaged ten years earlier by TEND. Times had changed, as the opening statement of this document recognised: "Society is changing at an ever-increasing rate". The economy, technology, family breakdown, the role of women, and cultural diversity were given as instances of change. Among policies outlined in the document are:

- how the curriculum should prepare all students, K - Year 12, "to become adult citizens who contribute to the culture, welfare and prosperity of the community' (p. 11);
- how courses should be selected and developed in consultation with students and their parents (p. 21); and
- how teachers should be "willing and able to cope with change and to cope with changing circumstances", and "be able to communicate effectively with parents and members of the community to gain their support and cooperation, and to be receptive to their suggestions" (pp. 26-7).

The sixth, and last, section in this policy document is devoted to the following statements about Parents and the Community (1987:28). In so doing it, this section appears to encapsulate a late-twentieth century view pertinent to all the locations which have been recorded in this study.

6.1 Schools and the community are interdependent.

6.1.1 Schools and students depend on parents and the entire community for support. They need to know and understand each other.

6.1.2 Equally, parents and the entire community depend on schools to provide the form of education that will best help young people to make their way in life and contribute to the common good.

6.2 Teachers and educators at all levels in the education system should consult and work with students, parents and community representatives.

6.2.1 Consultation is essential if the principles set out in this statement are to be put into practice effectively.

6.2.2 This process should be practised diligently and systematically to ensure that education programs reflect the traditions of our society and develop in students the personal qualities valued by the community.

***Foundations for the Future* Cresap's Final Report (1990)**

The condition of Tasmanian educational administration presently obtaining may be gauged by the Cresap Report from management consultants commissioned by the Field Labor Government. As its subtitle suggests, this document is intended to provide a focus for the administration of Tasmanian Education and the Arts. Its Terms of Reference had the objective of identification of "areas in the school system where greater efficiencies and cost-effectiveness can be achieved while maintaining the quality of education". Particular attention was to be paid to "the special character of Tasmanian education and the community context of size, remoteness, etc".

An Interim Report gave opportunity to many of the stakeholders to provide the Review with feedback and comment. In getting the system into perspective, the Review finds that "Historically, Tasmanian education has been well resourced compared with the national average" (Cresap, 1990:3). In fact, Cresap (1990:5) goes on to say, it is one of the most expensive systems in the country, adding that "does not necessarily mean good educational outcomes". Obviously, Cresap recognises other factors. Cresap's findings include the following which are of moment to the concerns of this study:

- the Department's organisation culture is teacher, rather than student, oriented (Cresap, 1990:6);
- devolution of much decision-making is required to bring "decision making closer to schools and community" (Cresap, 1990:7);

- although Tasmania is unique by virtue of geography, history, economy and culture, the same can be said about every other state. Each has "many educational needs common to all regions of Australia" (Cresap, 1990:24);
- "significant structural barriers" (Cresap, 1990: 34) must be removed to implement the otherwise unanimously supported 'seamless' K12 policy (Cresap, 1990: 49)
- social justice principles must be enshrined to "ensure that no child or group of children will suffer educational deprivation, or disadvantage, because of their socioeconomic circumstances" (Cresap, 1990: 49); and
- "schools are community based educational organisations and should, as a priority, address the needs and aspirations of their communities" (Cresap, 1990: 49).

The Review team propose a decentralised, eight district model of educational administration as the superstructure to "to ensure equity, quality outcomes, effectiveness and efficiency across the system' (Cresap, 1990:47). Devolution of responsibility is endorsed as 'inherently good'; establishment of School Councils is recommended as the formal link between schools and their communities. Cresap (1990:60) states:

> Each school should have a school council with significant input into school operations. Each school should establish a council of parents and/or the broader community to provide input and support to the operations of the school. The purpose of this council is to provide a close working relationship between school and community. The council will provide advice, guidance, and support and will control expenditure of locally raised funds. The council should also be consulted on overall school issues and should endorse, but not have power of veto over, an annual school plan and budget developed by the school. In case of significant dispute between the school and its council, the district superintendent should assist in resolving the dispute. The Department plans to circulate several models for school councils to give school/communities a range of choices in the council structure.

A series of Departmental documents followed to provide guidelines for councils, including a Memorandum from the Educational and Planning Advisory Unit (June, 1990:6), which advised "Formal and informal management, governance, and communication processes to involve all stakeholders". These still have interim status in Tasmania. Yet, some ten years earlier, there was awareness by the Department of the advantages to be gained by formation of school councils. Edwards (1982:79) notes bringing home and school together, providing channels for "real participation", communicating and consciousness raising. Thurstans (1982:6) a School Council Adviser at the time, reiterates the vital nature of communication "the dissemination of ideas, experience, exemplary models and factual information". Recognition is made in the national Participation and Equity Report (1983:16) of "poor communication and interaction" between schools and the whole community.

TASMANIAN EVIDENCE: informants around the State

Indications have been given that Tasmania appears to suffer an Australia-wide concern for poor school community relations, that the State does not share a tradition of community participation in schools, that the trend towards decentralisation is recognised, and that moves have been made to attend to this trend. Yet performance, procedures, or policies in which there is involvement by any other than professional educators or bureaucrats, is not much in evidence in Tasmanian practice. But some exists. A few learning institutions did establish councils from the early 80s onwards, including two that are the subjects of later investigation in this study. No implementing legislation enabling school/community participation was introduced in Tasmania, however, nor has this occurred since then.

Context A: **The Rosebery model of self-management**

In both of the afore-cited cases it will become apparent that the personal initiative of one or two leading figures guided the formation of the councils in question. A similar impetus gave rise to a notable model of a governing body which was established in a Government District High School in the isolated west coast mining town of Rosebery. The initiatives of its Principal, Jim Spinks, were recognised as exemplary by a Project of National Significance in 1982. The financial aspects of such a 'self-managing school' are described in detail by Caldwell & Spinks (1988). Observation of its operation was undertaken by the researcher for the purposes of this study. These observations are briefly described below.

In the mid 70s, this school, with an enrolment of some 600 students ranging from Kindergarten to Year 10, had a joint committee of parents and teachers working together to overcome problems as a disadvantaged school. This collaboration had such successful outcomes that by 1982 the committee concept was extended into a fully fledged School Council with a purpose designed Constitution. The Constitution spelled out that this was a decision making body which set goals, identified needs, determined and evaluated policies. All members are elected except the Principal, who is automatically a member and accountable to Council for the implementation of its policies. The Council is accountable to the community.

This governing body has been operational since 1983 and a wide range of policies have been formulated, published and widely disseminated by it on issues as diverse as homework, excursions, special education (see Appendix 11) discipline, health education, as well as on every curriculum subject. A reason given by the Acting Principal for the obvious success of the Council was "this community is a very easy one to identify as it coheres around the purposes of the mine which is why the town is here in the first place". He emphasised that the Council had come into being from previous trust and respect between the school staff and the community. In his opinion, the Council was suitably empowered and all members took their responsibilities seriously.

The Acting Principal's views were verified in interviews with a cross section of councillors representative of students, staff and parents, and included the Chairman, a mine executive. Their verdicts on the usefulness, collaboration, effectiveness, and worth of the Council was unanimous. Although several informants noted the amount of time taken up by work on the governing body, only the staff seemed in any way tense about this. One teacher ruefully admitted "this is not something I've had to contend with in other schools I've worked in, and I'll miss involvement with the local community when I move on". Another teacher said "Rosebery is one out of the box, but perhaps it is just as well for teacher mortality in this State. I don't think this [Council] would work as well in many other places". At a staff meeting, it was apparent the Council had power, had to be considered, and was strongly valued by each speaker there. Interviewee parents, and particularly the chairman, accepted and welcomed their participation. "It is a wonderful interest in an isolated place like this, I'll miss it when I leave". Such comments illustrate the centrality of the school as a stable element in such a social context and the contribution that an effective school council can contribute to quality of life and education for students and the community.

Context B: **Parents and Friends Associations**

Among the objectives of Parents and Friends Associations is promotion of interest in the school by bringing parents, citizens, pupils, and teaching staff into closer cooperation. The Secretary of the Tasmanian Council of State School Parents and Friends Associations, Ivan Williams, is on media record (*The Bulletin*, 23 May 1989) as saying that "P & F input is limited to fundraising, sports coaching, social activities and some remedial work at primary level although parents want to do more". Samples of perceptions held by members of such associations were ascertained from those parents attending workshops conducted at an Association's State Seminar (25 May 1991) entitled '*Self Managing Schools (Decentralised Decision Making & School Councils)*'. Bewilderment and dissatisfaction with the status quo was evident. Remarks were made from the platform, such as:

"mostly we don't know what's going on in curriculum in our schools";
"communication needs to be improved";
"we give a lot of voluntary hours to school now, what will school councils want?";
"we are still not welcome in some schools";
"I'm frightened of having my head bitten off".

In general, there was little indication that the notion of a school council for each school had taken hold in the minds of these parents. Yet, by their presence as delegates to such a seminar, they are obviously committed to involvement in schools.

Context C: **Principals**

During interviews with professionals at other locations, the difficulties associated with formation of councils is of concern, especially to principals who feel there are no clear

guidelines to follow should councils be made mandatory. An incoming Principal who inherited a six month old Council in a northern coastal High School said "I feel I am inventing the wheel here. I know that is an expensive exercise, time-wise". Another Principal who has been at his rural school for over fifteen years, sees the need to form a Council "to strengthen my power base". He sent a questionnaire to the entire community to gauge response from it before setting up a Council. In a large Primary school in a seaside town south of Hobart, the Principal is struggling with the possibility of turning the P&F executive into a council. He feels sure, he says "There is no way the community of a primary school can cope with the complex accounts of this school", while a mother retorted "just see us try !"Although, even she is not confident of enough support for a council in her community.

Reflections on the Tasmanian record

As Caldwell & Spinks (1988:221) suggest, in answer to the question "What happens if parents and the community are not interested in policy making?", there are some strategies which can be adopted. Advertising meetings well, clearly identifying the issues, documenting the policies for the information of all concerned, or determining what new policies should be made by considering options are mentioned by Caldwell & Spinks. But first, a forum in which to do this has to be formally established in each school.

Sporadic incidence of established councils in Tasmania is evident. Some of the reasons for the meagre uptake in the devolutionary trend have been suggested. Persistent proposals for community involvement have been thwarted by whatever cause, or have been ineffectively implemented. The impotence of formal community organisations, such as Parents and Friends Associations, to impact on deliberations to this end has been sketched from views expressed to the researcher. Other contributory factors to the present lag in decentralisation of decision making in Tasmania have been suggested. Chief among them appears to be lack of political leaders to drive participative democracy of this kind. There is also the puzzlement of community members as to how, or why, or whether, or when, they might wish to proceed along the path to participation in administration of the public educational system in their State.

Such evidence, in turn, leads to a conclusion that, as the rhetoric of community involvement has been demonstrated through the aforementioned numerous reports and statements by consultants, educators, and Department personnel, the dearth of school councils in Tasmania may be accounted for by the inertia of politicians to legislate for empowerment of the community. Certainly there is little legislation in Tasmania to demonstrate political perceptions that participation is a prominent concern to which they must needs respond. However, the Rosebery model evinces enthusiasm for self-management in this meso level location, and is an exception to prove the rule. A proliferation of non-government models can also be found in the State of Tasmania.

Chapter 7

Inferences from Nine Case Records

An overview

Decentralisation of educational administration with a devolutionary trend in decision making was indicated in the first section of this thesis, and substantiated by an initial literature review. The macro and meso levels of inquiry recorded in this second section, give evidence of bearing this out. Nevertheless, analysis of the data collected shows marked variations in international, interstate and State patterns of decentralisation and devolution. It has become evident that the processes adopted to meet either political intentions to decentralise school administration, or community aspirations to participate in school-site policy making, vary considerably.

The historical connections between the countries in which investigation has been undertaken, with their common cultural heritage based on that of Britain, have been modified over time so that diverse political emphases have developed. These can be observed in each of the locations, even in localities and on particular sites. Nonetheless, the deeply individualistic culture typical of Great Britain, to which Halsey (1986) alludes, is observable in the way these communities do what they do. Private interest often appears to be put before social welfare, yet the present political agenda to be found in the widely dispersed locations investigated during this inquiry seems to waver uneasily between commitment to social imperatives and the demands of the free market economy. The mix of peoples who presently inhabit, or who are indigenous to, the places in which the inquiry was undertaken has proved to be yet another common factor in that all the locations have concerns about migrant populations in one form or another. Although, in some specific locations this has proved a larger problem than in others, it was not seen presently as one of great moment in any of the settings which were chosen as congruent with that of Hobart, Tasmania.

Presuppositions about the impregnation of the British social and political system into these widespread countries could be readily observed; in place names (eg. State of Victoria, Australia; University of Victoria, Wellington New Zealand; Victoria, capital of British Columbia), in a common language, in parliamentary democracy, in hierarchical structures, in religious freedom, in the prevalence of private schools on the British Public School model, even in perceived oligarchies and dominating political figures within such democracies. The countries held problems in common, too. A climate of stringent economies

and consumer reaction was evident at the time of inquiry in many of the locations. Legislators are shaping their mandates to respond to a movement towards participatory democracy and localised self determination, and it is not surprising that, in the process, some of the financial burden is being transferred along with powers to devolve decisions on educational matters. The power of elected political representatives at national or regional levels has resulted in concurrent production of similar legal powers in widely dispersed places. 'Towards autonomy' appears to be the masthead of these legal manoeuvres.

Throughout this investigation, the vagaries of the democratic process were continuously apparent. Many New Zealanders expressed a view that they had not endorsed such sweeping reforms as David Lange implemented. Some English informants stressed their opposition to the policies of Mrs Thatcher, of which ERA88 (Educational Reform Act, 1988) was but one example. In Canada, the oft-enunciated pressure for participation may not have been relieved by Sullivan Royal Commission rhetoric. The incremental progress towards involvement in a real sense of local participants in Victorian State school policy appears to be answered, in some instances, with apathy or little positive responsiveness. Tasmanian education operates under the legal sanction of the Education 1932, a somewhat anachronistic position on the continuum of a devolutionary trend. However, this may confer on the State an opportunity to learn from experience in other places how to decentralise its administration. A recent major report in Tasmania (Cresap, 1990) encourages authorities in this regard. However, initial efforts to pursue a course towards self-management have been neither speedy, unambiguous nor clearly directional. Mixed messages from the unions, the professionals and the public in reaction to the Cresap Report have not been easy for politicians or educational administrators to read.

How an assessment of the 'people's will' is made in other than ballot box terms is open to conjecture. *Vox populi* in the form of media or opinion polls are increasingly vociferous instruments which impact on political opinions and actions. While political party platforms are notoriously movable, it is apparent from the Case Records that directions which governments in power have taken with regard to social services such as education, can come as a surprise to the electorate, can seem to be taken in great haste and implemented with great speed, can obviate informed advice, and can arouse strong feelings of either goodwill or discontent at the *fait accompli.*

There was evidence during the inquiry in New Zealand, England and Wales, and Victoria Australia, locations which appear to have genuinely decentralised their educational administration (whether as response to clients or from other political motives), that many school governing bodies have taken up the tasks with enthusiasm and readiness to devote time, energy, and goodwill to governing bodies as constituted. In many cases, too, experience in human affairs has been recognised and expertise expanded with

training for governors. There was also recognition that not all community participation has to take place on governing bodies. A place for other groups, such as Parents and Friends Associations, is not discounted as a means of expression of local community needs and communication between schools and their clientele. But it is with the pattern of decentralisation to school-site governance, formal empowerment of community participants to make policy, that this study is concerned.

Patterns of decentralisation

The pattern of educational administration which emerges from the macro and meso level inquiry is one which demonstrates a devolutionary trend. But patterns are seldom completely uniform. Even neighbouring states in a federation can pursue remarkably different paths in implementation of policies which appear to stem from common imperatives. So also, different interpretations of directives are made in localities. Increasingly, it would appear that diversity is recognised as beneficial in responding appropriately to specific and peculiar local needs.

At the completion of the macro and meso levels inquiry, a summary of the evidence was constructed for analyses purposes in an across-setting matrix (see Appendix 15). A selection of samples from all nine locations at the macro and meso levels of inquiry was assembled. Items were categorised to indicate legislation, central authority directives, major reports, change monitoring, present governance powers, and characteristics of extant participation by communities. Although it was a far from exhaustive list, these items illustrated the varying degrees of decentralisation and devolution presently operating. It illustrated political activity in the pattern of community participation at the beginning of the last decade of the twentieth century.

An incremental development towards decentralisation of responsibility and accountability to school-site administration is apparent in New Zealand, England and Wales, and Victoria. The pattern is marked by a concerted legal and central authority sanctions, in conjunction with supportive research and report findings, giving clearly articulated purposes for change. This pattern of decentralisation signals formal commitment to devolved decision making to include participation of local stakeholders in governance of learning institutions. It empowers local communities to exert influence on the quality of education in their schools, including the right to appoint staff.

It can be seen from the matrix that, while there are some similar patterns elsewhere, none approach the extent of decentralisation and devolution evident in the aforementioned locations. The following is a brief overview of decentralisation patterns in the other locations.

The United States of America

Despite long-standing egalitarian rhetoric, or perhaps because of it, the sheer diversity of interpretations of 'participation' in that country has had the effect that some systems, as in Chicago, advocate devolution to school-sites; many systems maintain District School Boards as final arbiters of policy; some educators favour a Federal imprimatur; and some smaller systems recognise aspirations for greater involvement but, presently, appear powerless to persuade more central authorities to grant it.

Canada and Scotland

Both countries are apparently determined to be seen as strongly independent of more populous neighbours. The present thrust in both locations is to consolidate perceived high standards of education but this appears to be at the expense of marginalising communities to continue their approval or advisory roles for the present. The relative financial affluence observed in Victoria, British Columbia and Aberdeen, Scotland may have contributed to this position, for economic constraints have been acknowledged as possible contributors to devolution, and such conditions did not appear to obtain in either of those locations. However, in Scotland, there are precedents for greater participative powers than are presently distributed and, if probable financial stringency overtakes in future, is may result in increased decentralisation in Scotland. The same may apply to Canada as a whole or in localities therein, such as already pertains in Edmonton, Alberta.

Ireland and New South Wales

The possibilities of participation are recognised in both these places where there are concerns with large school populations and centralised systems. Both appear to be on a continuum towards devolution in their respective locations but both lag considerably behind developments in neighbouring locations, Northern Ireland or the State of Victoria respectively.

Tasmania

Tacit approval is being given to moves towards what is termed 'self -management'. In the State there is scant precedent for community participation, yet the idiosyncratic Rosebery model, which has attracted widespread attention in New Zealand and England, originated in an isolated school on the west coast of Tasmania. In addition, a few Tasmanian public schools did take up the 1981 White Paper recommendations to set up school councils. As elsewhere, all independent schools have governing bodies.

Yet, in every location the objective of achieving educational quality was perceived as underlying the pattern of devolution. Whether in schools, in central administrators'

offices, or in centres of higher education or training, the goal of delivering education for the advantage of students was expressed to the researcher. So much so, that quality of education is considered to be a major factor which will be exclusively addressed in the following section of the thesis. It is noted here as a predominant thread interwoven into the pattern of devolution.

To summarise to this point is to discern a distinct pattern of educational administration in the locations that were investigated. Analysis of the data leads to findings that certain characteristics of the pattern demonstrate the extent of decentralisation. Underlying traditions and local customs of settings, recent rationales for reform, controls which include assurance of social justice, and an overall consideration for educational quality all appear to have significance.

How devolution actually occurs was investigated during the macro and meso level inquiry on location. Alongside identified patterns, certain processes appeared to be associated with the empowerment of community participation.

Processes in devolution

As in the discernible patterns, these processes appeared to be tinged with political overtones in one form or another. The degree of organisational change proposed by politicians or central bureaucrats obviously affects the personnel involved in schools. At the school site, participatory governance implicates two types of persons: professional educators and lay representatives. The participation of students was seldom found to have significance for governance processes, except in New Zealand, Victoria, and in Rosebery, Tasmania. Research into student participation in school-site administration, their perception of democracy at work, has not been intensively pursued in this governance study. The processes that were observed during the macro and meso level inquiry have, following analysis, emerged as those subsumed under four headings: power distribution, timing, role distinction, and communication.

1. Power distribution

Formal responsibility for educational administration, management of resources, and consequent accountability would seem to constitute the agenda for school-site government. In devolving decision making from central control to participatory governance, power is being redistributed.

Criticism of the superordinance of professionals, bureaucrats or educators, in the processes of governance had been identified in related literature at the commencement of the study. In England, recognition of "producer domination", in New Zealand "provider

capture", and in Victoria "teachers obligated to realise council policy", may have contributed to marked changes in educational administration in these locations. In Canada and Scotland, the apparent dominance of professionals in maintaining a firm grip on educational policies has been somewhat ameliorated by the attention devoted to adequate documentation to communicate with clients. In that way, communities are at least well informed about the aims and objectives of schooling, even if not empowered to participate in its administration. However, there were some precedents for involvement in both places. There have been Parent Advisory Councils in Canada, also District School Boards, in Canada for many years. In Scotland, School Councils were once well established and may well return to favour if funds for professional aggrandisement dry up, as seems to be the pattern elsewhere.

It does not seem to be just a coincidence that in the locations where participatory governance is firmly in place - England and Wales, New Zealand and Victoria - mandates for empowerment are also firmly constituted. Requirements of governing bodies are clear and unequivocal. For example, Boards of Trustees in New Zealand are responsible "for the institution's charter, for staffing, for allocation of funds, and for building maintenance" (Picot, 1988: 45). Under the English Education Reform Act (Section 16(1),1988), governors have overall responsibility for "the conduct of the school"; this includes seeing the national curriculum is implemented.

The power to appoint and dismiss staff has been found to be significant. Choice of appropriate teachers, especially the principal, for a particular school is likely to impact on every aspect of the program designed for that school.

2. Timing

The timing of the process of devolution, and the time-line allowed for implementation of change, have been shown to have impact in decentralisation. Immediate solutions to problems of education and schooling have been identified as desired or expected by widespread communities. However, it has also been found that neither the teaching profession nor school community members appear to react well to swift change. Some reforms may have been too fast-growing for those most affected, although there was some expression that speed stimulated effective change and was welcomed by enthusiasts, both professional and laypersons. It would appear that finding the subtle moment appropriate for adoption of restructuring is a political judgement to be made at every level of educational administration.

3. Role distinction

Whatever strategies are adopted, the process of restructuring or revitalisation of education is seen to call frequently and increasingly upon empowered participants to administer its delivery. Distribution among both professionals, whether educators or administrators, and lay representatives of local communities, of powers to do this is a major factor in devolutionary processes. Definition and allocation of the roles to be played by both types of protagonist appears to be a major factor. There is evidence that, even when professionals accept the amateur laity as partners in the endeavour of governance, the roles assigned to educators become superordinate. There would not seem to be any argument from community members that professional educators have a pre-eminent role as teachers. However, an administrative role in institutions is arguably outside their exclusive prerogative. Other stakeholders would appear to have legitimate claims to participate in it. Yet, professionals seem to persist in taking the superordinant position here, too. Hence, unless specific counter directives to allow local community participation in governance are instituted, as in England, New Zealand or Victoria, professional dominance appears to be perpetuated despite community pressure to play a participant role as partners in administrative processes.

A key community role is identified for the chairperson of a governing body. Almost invariably a lay person, the attributes of that person need to be of a high order if the process of participatory governance is to be effective.

Training to play an effective role in the process of governance is being provided in many locations, in one form or another, for participants in school-site governance. This includes training for both professionals and laity as specific knowledge and expertise are required for effective school governance.

4. Communication

This process includes communication between central authorities and school units, between an institution and its community and between the internal environment of the school and its governing body. Provision of adequate control information upon which to base decision making needs to be made available to governing bodies by the professional educators. This seems to be essential if participatory governance is to be effective.

Some graphic and informative material was found to be available in a number of settings during this inquiry. There was some evidence that professionals were listening to what their particular community had to say, notably in New Zealand which has a history of such interaction. However, it was not an observation which could be made frequently during this inquiry.

Media attention to educational topics has been noteworthy. Some persistently critical themes - lowered educational standards, dominant professional involvement, bureaucratic management of education - have been evident. The opportunity to harness media for constructive, promotional purposes is one of which more use could be made to inform the public of the true performance of the education system. As Scott (1989a:4) comments in the context of New South Wales, the public is often unaware of the good things going on in schools.

Politics in decentralised administration

Finally, it has to be acknowledged that educational administration cannot be seen as an end in itself. Particularly in recent years, some of the dissatisfaction about schooling articulated by pressure groups, politicians, the media, industry and commerce, and by educators themselves, would appear to derive, at least in part, from a sense of powerlessness to achieve educational quality of the kind which succeeds in meeting consumers' aspirations. Restructuring the means of its delivery is seen by many as a way forward to better outcomes, hence the devolutionary trend the objective of which is revitalisation of public education systems.

Reforms in the administration of education have clearly been influenced by politics, political considerations and politicians. The activity of governance itself is of necessity a political act of persuasion, whether at the level of national government action or local community sub-governmental activity. Political attitudes are of its essence; activism, citizenship, colonialism, democratic values, and public opinion are each related terms. In the endeavour of governing a learning institution, the inclusion of all of its community consumers may be enlisted to restructure and revitalise administration of the service provided. The reforms that have occurred in New Zealand, Victoria, New South Wales, and England point to the critical factor of political leadership and vision driving these reforms in decentralising educational administration and devolution. The political will to reform educational administration has to be present. Devolution takes the form of changing responsibility for decision making. One valued objective of the political action remains the same, it has been identified as attainment of quality education.

Major factors observable in decentralised administration

The major factors evident in the cases recorded are summarised (Table 4) as either patterns and processes, interlinked by political activity. These major factors are briefly explained in terms of their operational definitions as an overview of the situation which was apparent at the time of this inquiry.

Table 4. **Decentralisation and devolution: major factors**

PATTERNS	PROCESSES
←POLITICS →	
TRADITIONS, LOCAL CUSTOM Historical precedents governing bodies. Democracy - oligarchy. Bureaucracy - central authority. Centralisation - decentralisation. Participation - involvement.	POWER DISTRIBUTION Centralised; remote from school-site. Mandated devolution. Formal responsibility for educational program. Resource management. Accountability. Appointments.
RATIONALE FOR REFORM Alienation of citizens from decisions which affect them. Dissatisfaction with standards. Loss of faith in authorities and professions. Consumerism.	TIMING Incremental development of devolution. Quick change disorientation. Impact. Time-lines for restructuring and revitalisation.
EQUITY ASSURANCE Church/State domination. Central retention of curriculum, accreditation, testing. Financial allocation. Public/private system. Race, religion, gender inequities.	ROLE DISTINCTION Professional: full-time, paid. Lay participants: part-time, unpaid. Experience. Expertise. Principals. Chairpersons. Laypersons. Politicians. Bureaucrats.
QUALITY OF EDUCATION Underlying imperative. Perception of standards. Objective; desired outcomes. Relevance. Relationships.	COMMUNICATION Inter-activity: central authority/units. Involvement of public media. Institutional interchange of information. Interpersonal exchange of views and knowledge

In general, the inferences that may be drawn from the Case Records are that the decentralisation pattern has been found to take account of traditions and local customs, a rationale for reform, assurance of equity, and quality of education. The devolutionary trend in decision making is affected by processes such as the distribution of appropriate powers to function adequately, the timing concerned with reform, the distinctive roles allocated to participants, and the communication and interaction which takes place. Together with the political activity which has been indicated, these appear to be the major factors in decentralisation and devolution.

Conclusion to Section 2

This section of the thesis has been concerned with the macro and meso levels of inquiry that were indicated in the model for the school governance study (Figure 4, page 52) shown in the previous section. In line with the conceptual framework designed for the study (Figure 1, page 12), investigation into the patterns, processes, and politics of decentralised educational administration that is depicted as the second stage, has been described in nine Case Records.

In this section, the second pair of hypotheses and research questions (H2Q2) have been addressed. The hypothesis that an intention in decentralising educational administration is that professional and lay members of a school's community make policy has been found to be realisable from the observations made in many of the locations that were investigated. The major observable factors in the process of devolved decision making have been categorised in answer to the related research question.

Analysis of the data collected has been summarised and inferences drawn. Included in the Case Records has been the State of Tasmania in which the focal locality (Hobart) for further investigation, as a participant observer, is situated.

Before proceeding to that micro level of inquiry, a fundamental issue in this study's problem - the quality of education - is examined. The institutional support afforded by participatory governance to elements hypothesised for educational quality, namely learning, teaching, and leadership, is the subject of the third stage set in the conceptual framework for this governance study. It forms the third section of this thesis.

SECTION 3: Educational quality: implications for school administration

Chapter 8

Quality of Education

This third section of the thesis is concerned with educational quality and its implications for school administration. In this chapter, quality related to the purpose of this study is defined, and the characteristics are identified before different perspectives of it - anecdotal, cultural, contextual, dimensional, educational, and environmental - are examined. A concept of quality of education in schools is developed using research findings and models to arrive at depiction of a total school environment. A contextual model is designed to illustrate the possible community contribution to educational quality in a learning institution through formal participation in school-site government. Its implications for administration by participatory governance are discussed in the chapter to follow. The contribution of community to school-site administration in terms of quality is the focus of this research. This chapter is central to the thesis.

As the objective of the study is to discern the potential of community participation in policy making to influence the quality of education, the research question of how useful or productive lay and professional collaboration in decision making may be, hinges on the meaning of the term 'quality of education'. Earlier explication of educational quality (Chapter 2) has been a precursor to the more detailed discussion in this chapter. It was indicated in Chapter 1 that the data collected during the macro and meso levels of inquiry was expected to add to theoretical perspectives on educational quality.

It is assumed that the advent of community participation in governance might be expected to change outcomes in learning institutions. When consideration is given to what should not change, it is important to bear in mind the assertion that "whatever else schools can and do accomplish, their primary purpose is instructional" (Purkey & Smith, 1985:355). While instruction may be more accurately labelled 'learning and teaching' in the Australian context, outcomes achieved from that "primary purpose", together with "whatever else schools can and do accomplish", may be measured in terms of quality of education.

In the conceptual framework for this study of school governance (Figure 1, page 12), five related stages in a devolutionary process of educational administration are hypothesised. The background to these stages is given as quality of education. In the framework, the five stages are aligned with the five pairs of research hypotheses and

questions (Table 1, page 11). The first two, H1Q1 and H2Q2, have been the subjects of previous sections of this thesis. The third pair, H3Q3, concerns educational quality in a learning institution. It is hypothesised that a governing body can make a contribution to this. The research question posed is how participatory governance does it. The conceptual framework envisages this happening through support for the schooling processes of learning and teaching, and for institutional leadership.

Quality of education may be predicated on adequate provision of financial resources. This is taken to be a quantitative contribution which, while it obviously cannot be discounted, is not necessarily the major criterion for outcomes of quality. This chapter explores additional criteria for quality, including community contribution to it. So the chapter begins with a question about possible characteristics of quality.

What are the characteristics of educational quality?

Difficulty in defining what is meant by quality has already been indicated. The Karmel Report (1985:3) quotes an Organisation for European Cooperation and Development (OECD) document, *Quality of Education* (1983), which characterises ways it might be interpreted "for some it appears to serve as a synonym for excellence or efficiency, others use it as a metaphor for good educational practice and others again equate it with material provision". At the Bicentennial Conference of the Australasian Association of Senior Educational Administrators held in Hobart in September 1988, educationalists addressed the challenge of identifying *'Quality in Education'*. Hughes (1988:7) contributed this comprehensive definition:

> quality is an elusive idea ... Quality in education is an even more diffuse idea. The scientist, the artist, the writer, the engineer, the physician, the retailer, the insurance agent, the banker; not only do these require different preparations from one another, but there is a range of views on any one of them. The scientist, even in a specific area, will be differently prepared by Oxford, the Sorbonne, and MIT. When we come to the common base of education, the first ten to twelve years of schooling, the differences in viewpoint remain striking. One view will value highly academic preparation in areas such as history and mathematics. Another will emphasise the need for skills in reading, arithmetic and writing. Another will emphasise social graces and communication skills. By the very nature of the concept of education, quality is a multi-dimensional idea. It is of little use to argue about such a topic without ensuring that we use comparable bases, or at least well defined bases.

Hughes (1988:89) clarified the issues he raised. These are condensed in the following summary.

1. Quality of education is a matter of the emphases we put on different aims.
2. The idea inevitably involves value decisions.
3. The concept of quality in education will always involve controversy.

4. The controversy involves striking a balance between:
    - local - global requirements,
    - leadership - participation,
    - continuity - change, and
    - choice - commonality.
5. We need to have clear ideas on:
    - what others expect us to do,
    - what we can do well,
    - what we can do with difficulty, and
    - what we can't do at all.

The necessary ingredients for "quality schooling" are given by Lawton (1988:214) as worthwhile curriculum, school organisation and ethos conducive to education, and professional teaching. At the Hobart Conference, Lawton (1988:17) gave his view that:

> A good teacher is no longer simply a good instructor, but a curriculum planner with a wide repertoire of pedagogical techniques. And the role of the teacher should not be seen as an isolated factor in the search for quality: it is one facet of a very complex, multidimensional set of relationships.

Lawton (1988:18) pointed out that professionals "must be concerned with the quality of the teaching process and the needs of individual children", adding that "professionals focus on the quality of input and teaching quality".

These characteristics are seen from the viewpoints of professional educators, but there are additional perspectives which are now described.

Anecdotal perspectives on quality

During the course of the macro and meso levels of inquiry, interviewees frequently mentioned quality of education as a personal concern. On the few occasions when no voluntary mention of it was made, one of the key questions which had been included in the format devised for the semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 3.5.1), was asked: "Is there a generally held view of quality education here?" The following are samples of responses from different locations:

Teacher trainer in New Zealand: "A basic principle for attainment of quality must be response to the people's will".

Irish teacher in a denominational school: "Quality is what we are on about surely, as Proverbs says where there is no vision the people perish".

An American academic: "Some financial services may have to be curtailed or even eliminated in order to preserve the quality of essential services, but we must be clear what those are".

Ministry official in British Columbia: "We are ensuring that opportunities exist for quality education for all, that should be the fundamental role of educators. It is our function to support

learning by being student focussed. The quality of our school system can be judged in terms of our students' achievements".

English consultant on training for governing bodies: "A clear and specific focus on quality management is a prime determinant of any school's success"

Scottish Regional Director (after considerable silent musing): "Our system aims to produce people qualified to fit into a commercial and industrial society. In it there should be opportunities for all children to develop as individual 'rounded' persons".

Journalist member of a New Zealand Board of Trustees: "Quality will be assured in our school so long as we continue to have the right people on the Board. Schools used to exist in their own little world, now no longer. We are all interested in quality outcomes".

Female student member of another Board of Trustees: "I have the chance to contribute to the quality of education here, I'm not made to feel smaller than other members. I feel I understand the confidentiality and discretion needed for membership".

School Council Liaison Officer, Geelong, Victoria: "Quality must be assessed in terms of community needs. Students' needs are an important part of that and must be ascertained".

Cluster Director in a New South Wales Region: "Quality of education provision varies greatly from region to region, we try to ensure that deficiencies are corrected here".

Principal of Intermediate School in New Zealand: "The learning outcomes of students reflect the nature of educational quality".

Teacher at the same New Zealand school: "The principal is the prime mover towards achieving quality in this school"

Headmistress of a girls' school in New Zealand: "We are beginning to re-evaluate education and must provide quality female models to ensure gender equity. I see equity is one of the purposes of schooling in our culture now"

Cultural perspectives on quality

The passing on of the culture of one generation to the next can be seen as a broad purpose for schooling. Caldwell (1990a:2) views an excellent school as one which offers an education of quality, with quality expressed in terms of the goals of the school. He affirms, "goals have quality if they are of great worth" and quotes Archbishop D'Arcy who envisaged the school as "a centre for communicating civilisation". Caldwell gives as other goals those concerned with the knowledge, skills and attitudes which a student requires to attain a quality education. These expressed goals appear congruent with the views of the interviewees noted above.

Both culture and quality of education are multi-faceted concepts, resistant of concise definition. Deal & Kennedy (1982:4) quote Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary definition of culture as "the integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action, and artefacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting

knowledge to succeeding generations". When the cultural concern is education, the relevant elements in this definition of culture can be seen to be those dependent on the capacity to learn and to transmit knowledge. This fits with Purkey & Smith's statement on the primary purpose of schooling being instruction.

It should be acknowledged at the outset that many educators would have wider and broader aims for education of the young than passing on of the culture. Culture is a process which is ongoing, part of it is the past but part is being generated now, as contemporary concerns about gender equity demonstrate. It is the opinion of Hughes (1988:9) that "In the end, our discussions about education relate to the moral decisions about the nature of people and the nature of society". This view allows for the uniqueness and ubiquity of culture in human terms and in relation to settings; it allows for both common and idiosyncratic values and attitudes; it allows for the personal and the group ethic; it allows for the impact of place and history; it allows for communication of civilisation. All of these must be taken into account under the general heading culture in relation to a specific community, that 'nature of society' which Hughes affirms.

School community embraces all involved in a particular institution. As a very large hoarding outside a public high school in Rhode Island proclaimed 'Education is everybody's business'. It featured prominently the signature of the local mayor. Community perceptions on educational quality may be local ones, commonly perceived outcomes of some particular learning institution; they may be national or traditional perspectives on schooling; they may be widespread demands, as in many developed countries at the end of the 80s, for greater accountability from schools for student outcomes. Therefore local, national and international cultural perspectives may impinge on quality of education at any given time. Perspectives of both culture and quality may be seen to change. Consideration will turn now to what may constitute quality in various settings with a view to finding how quality has been distinguished both within and outside Australia.

Contextual perspectives on quality

The question of what educational quality in Australia is, requires answering by all concerned with schooling in this country. Poole (1988:57) asserted in Hobart, "That 'excellence', 'relevance' and 'quality' are being demanded of schools and students is part of a changing socio-historical context and a current economic imperative". The Karmel Committee's (1973) report to the new Whitlam government resulted in establishment of the Commonwealth Schools Commission and allocation of relatively massive expenditure to rectify deficiencies in both government and non-government schools. Twelve years later, another committee (again, chaired by Peter Karmel) reviewed *The Quality of Education in Australia* (1985). This time there was evaluation of the effectiveness of Commonwealth involvement in education. The findings indicated that assessment of quality of education proved complex and value laden. The Review (Karmel, 1985:3) concluded:

> There is no simple unidimensional measure of quality ... there is no simple prescription of the ingredients necessary to achieve high quality education: many factors interact students and their backgrounds; staff and their skills; schools and their structure and ethos; curricula; and social expectations.

At the Hobart Conference, Poole (1988:51) said that a vision of quality education for young Australians poses the problem for her as to what the notion of quality in education itself might be. She asked what she considered to be three fundamental questions about the meaning of quality:

(1) quality in terms of what? (student satisfaction; performance indicators; market forces; quality of instruction),
(2) quality for whom ? (for young people as clients of the system; for administrators as part of public accountability; for higher education; for employers), and
(3) quality in terms of whose interests? (young people, the economy, the nation, international corporations).

Poole (1988:60) argued that the socially democratic vision of community is essentially part of quality education for young Australians. By that she meant, among other things, a school ethos which is warm, accepting and caring. Poole (1988:61) concluded that:

> As educators and administrators, it is our responsibility to develop a vision and practice of education for young Australians that both responds to social change and tensions, but maintains the strength of what has gone before. Only then can we achieve quality education for our nation's youth.

The reaction of the participants at the Bicentennial Conference (Hughes, 1988:64) to these views was to stress the vital role they saw relationships playing in provision of quality education. Important relationships were seen to be those in which parents were involved in curriculum development and decision making. They also saw relationships between school and community and teachers and students as vital. In addition, Bicentennial Conference participants perceived school leadership as "critical to the provision of quality education".

Wider perspectives were also given at the Hobart Conference. Caldwell (1988:71), quoting from an OECD (1987) Report, *Quality of Schooling*, found in it that a concern for the quality of education in schools, however it is defined, is a high priority in developed countries. The OECD report gives curriculum planning, implementation, and evaluation as ultimate determinants of quality of education. The 1980s debate about national guidelines for curriculum and testing has been an international one, evident in the United Kingdom, United States, New Zealand, as well other OECD countries and now Australia, too (Skilbeck, 1990). Caldwell's (1988:72) opinion was that:

> while measures are being taken to ensure that all schools address common aims through a common curriculum framework, there is recognition that quality in terms of learning at the most important level of all, the student, can only be achieved if schools have the capacity to deliver the curriculum in a way that satisfies the needs and interests of the particular mix of students in the local setting.

Dimensional perspective on quality

Whether dimensions of educational quality can be measured is another question to be answered by educators. Williams (1988:114) found that if we are to identify quality achievements "we will need to measure them". It is the identification of quality achievement, according to Williams (1988:116) "the basic skill achievements", that must be tested and "their quality assessed by comparison with an accepted standard, if one can be agreed on, and/or by comparison with a relative standard, the average of students as a whole". In Hobart, it was Williams' contention (1988:113) that school systems must do the following:

> define achievements; measure them; report system wide statistics (and accept the fact that they may be misused by others); and use these statistics to monitor the operation of the school system, evaluate its performance, inform the development of its educational policies, report to its constituencies, and, overall, justify its existence.

Williams (1988:116) asserted this justification is essential for "it is the basic skill achievements of students that occupies centre stage in the minds of parents, the public at large and several levels of government". He found the Report of the *Quality of Education Review Committee* 1985 (QERC) offers some corroboration for this view by calling for schools and school systems to provide more information about their achievements. (QERC, 1985:192). This call for schools to give clear evidence of their effectiveness has been reiterated recently by Scott (1989a:4) in commentary about the New South Wales State education system which, he says, "has developed few indicators for the public to judge its true performance". One significant reason why teachers may have found difficulty in doing this is that, as has been illustrated in the foregoing, there are several contributory factors to seemingly straightforward indicators of quality performance. Performance indicators may not be easily and narrowly measured in the context of passing on the culture. Implicit in this is the fact that complex human variables have to be taken into account.

The dimensions of learning that can be measured, and which are "essential for adequate functioning in adult life", according to Williams (1988;115), are those listed by QERC (1985:70) as five basic skill competencies: acquiring information; conveying information; applying logical processes; practical tasks; and group tasks. The Reports of Finn (1991), Mayer (1992) and Carmichael (1992) have further delineated dimensions of competency in Australia.

To summarise to this point, is to realise that despite its imprecise nature, quality of education has meaning for those who use the term dependent on their viewpoint and context. Many factors are seen to interact in the achievement of educational quality: students, staff, school ethos, curricular and societal concerns. Quality of education indicates that decisions have to be made about what is to be learned, how it is to be evaluated, how teaching is to be appraised, so as to produce quality outcomes for students and their teachers, for parents and the community. Relationships between those persons are recognised as important in quality of education.

In turning from the Australian scene, particularly as staged at the Hobart Conference 1988, to findings of research elsewhere, is to gain a further educational perspective on quality. The effective schools and school improvement movements are noted by Beare *et al.* (1989:1) as having "substantially changed" the way we now regard schools. More widespread research findings on educational quality are examined to determine constituents of schooling which are effective for delivering outcomes of quality. This leads to consideration of environmental perspectives of schooling. A model to incorporate the multi-perspectival concept of quality in learning institutions is then developed.

Educational perspectives on quality

A chronicle of relevant research is by given by Beare *et al.* (1989:1) to exemplify "ways of creating really excellent schools". It begins by highlighting the findings of Coleman (1966) and Jencks (1972). These indicated that the efficacy of schooling was minimal compared with the impact of factors extraneous to the school. Coleman (1966:325) found that "schools bring little influence to bear upon a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context". Jencks (1972) assessed the effects of family and schooling in America and questioned the utility of education. He concluded, as quoted by Goodlad (1984:5), "school reform could do little to reduce the extent of cognitive inequality among students".

In England, earlier but similar, findings came in the Robbins Report (1962) to indicate that prediction of a student's record in school could be made on the basis of the parent's socio-economic status and occupational characteristics. Later, Connell *et al.* (1982) made comparable observations about Australia. Rae (1990) cites studies in New Zealand on class and ethnic difference (Nash, 1986) and quality for Maori students (Harker & McConnochie, 1985). The work of Freire (1985) in Latin America, Africa and North America covers similar ground. Depressing as the conclusions of these researchers often are, they tend to highlight the significance of parent and community inputs on students.

An inevitable question is posed by Beare *et al.* (1989:4):

> If it is so demonstrable that home and family backgrounds have such an enormous impact on how well a student performs at school, why have not educators invented more efficient models of teaching and learning which link the prime movers the home and the school in some clearly articulated, reinforcing way?

It is in the effective schools movement which became a trend in the mid 1970s, that Beare *et al.* (1989) attempt to find answers to their question. They quote Edmonds' (1982:4) view that "Educators have become increasingly convinced that the characteristics of schools are important determinants of academic achievement".

The work of Rutter *et al.* (1979) in twelve London schools confirmed that while students' programs should be work oriented, well monitored and assessed with an emphasis on academic performance, it was good atmosphere and ethos which were the significant characteristics of good schools. This seminal work extends the concept of basic instructional practice as the sole determinant of outcomes of quality by inclusion of school environment as a contributory factor to them. Ways of improving schools by attainment of excellent characteristics were put forward by researchers in the decade that followed Rutter's work.

Correlations were made between schools as workplaces and those of industry and commerce. Kanter (1983) found common aspects in managing change in corporate bodies. What Kanter (1983:288) called "the architecture of culture" requires an awareness of the foundations of an organisation by its leaders. Kanter (1983:297) argued that corporate leaders must be 'prime movers', encouraging individuals to find better ways of doing things, and getting increasing numbers of people participating in making changes happen.

Deal (1985:608) noted cultural elements in effective organisations as "shared values and beliefs, heroes and heroines, ritual and ceremony, stories and informal networks" as giving meaning to the workplace. Few would dispute the importance of these symbolic elements to school ethos.

Critical perspectives on the quality of leadership began to be developed. The traditional taken-for-granted view of "one directional flow from the leader to the led" (Watkins, 1989:10) gave way to a reality of "the human agency of people in organizations" (Watkins, 1989:26). A style of leadership, "not arbitrary or unilateral but rather an impressive and subtle sweeping back and forth of energy", was propounded by Bennis & Nanus (1985:32). In the field of education, Duke (1987:16) reinforced the notion of instructional leadership in which "teacher involvement in school decision making" was the central tenet around which schools should operate. Research into elements of educational excellence proliferated (Sergiovanni, 1984, 1987; Duke, 1986, 1987; Starratt, 1986; Fantini, 1986; Watkins, 1989). Sergiovanni (1987:122) gave 'leadership density' as requisite to excellence in schools, by this he meant "the extent to which leadership roles are shared and the extent to which leadership is broadly exercised". Earlier, Sergiovanni (1984:9) identified leadership forces as having technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural dimensions.

An equation for excellence was propounded by Fantini (1986:44):

Excellence = Quality + Equality + Effectiveness + Efficiency + Participation.

It was the view of Fantini (1986:44) that excellence will be achieved when quality is offered to most students "in the most productive and economical form, while utilizing both the substantive and procedural dimensions of democratic participation". Both these researchers suggested there should be broader measures for school outcomes, including leadership forces, strong school culture, efficiency and participation of the community.

Coleman & Hoffer (1987) followed up the earlier research into the efficacy of schools (Coleman, 1966) with findings on public and private schools. These indicated that the kinds of families whose children are in a school, the kinds of social structures in which families and schools are embedded, constitute a set of resources which they describe as 'social capital' (Coleman & Hoffer 1987:221). In their view, absence of this human resource represents a loss for any school. Coleman & Hoffer found that students in private Catholic High schools in the United States consistently out-performed public school students. This is attributed to school ethos based on 'value communities' (Coleman & Hoffer (1987:12). These they identified as sharing a value orientation and a commitment to invest social capital in institutions in which family members will achieve, and in which all can participate. An excellent school environment then was gradually beginning to be seen as including the contribution of its community.

Research studies before this time had been indicating that public involvement or parent participation in schools improved outcomes for students. Lopate *et al.* (1970:147) find:

> for the schools to be most effective, change may be needed in the school and in the relationship between the school and the community: education will probably have to become more relevant to the students, and the community and cultural integrity will have to be recognised.

Lopate *et al.* (1970) cite studies in the United States (Brookover *et al.*, 1965; Hess & Shipman, 1966; Rankin, 1967; Jablonsky, 1968) which showed that parental participation in school affairs correlates with heightened pupil development. Although Purkey & Smith (1985:356) do not find that quantitative input/output measures of school characteristics correlate significantly with student achievement, they find that more qualitative methodologies are more productive for this purpose.

Indications from these quite widespread findings lead to a conclusion that the efficacy of schooling should not be circumscribed by learning and teaching outcomes in isolation. External factors, such as community participation, do appear to impinge on the internal program of the school. The environment of the school appears to have broader parameters than may be at first apparent.

Environmental perspectives on quality

The concept of a total school environment leads to examination of ways it may contribute to overall educational quality. Purkey & Smith (1985:354) comment that the literature on school effectiveness suggests that certain programmatic and structural changes in schools will produce school improvement. They indicate that the programmatic tasks performed by professionals in schools, and the structural tasks of administration in which a participative approach is possible, are contributory factors to enhanced quality education in schools. Both program content and structural process are seen by Purkey & Smith as necessary for raising quality as both are components of the total environment of the school. They refer to separate studies conducted in California, Milwaukee, and Delaware which link shared decision making as contributing to student success. However, the most persuasive research for Purkey & Smith (1985:356) is that which suggests that "student academic performance is strongly affected by school culture". This reinforces the findings of Rutter *et al.* (1979) and Brookover & Lezotte (1979).

Purkey & Smith (1985:357) cite several studies which cumulatively show that

> efforts to change schools have been productive and most enduring when directed toward influencing the entire school culture via a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared decision making, and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation.

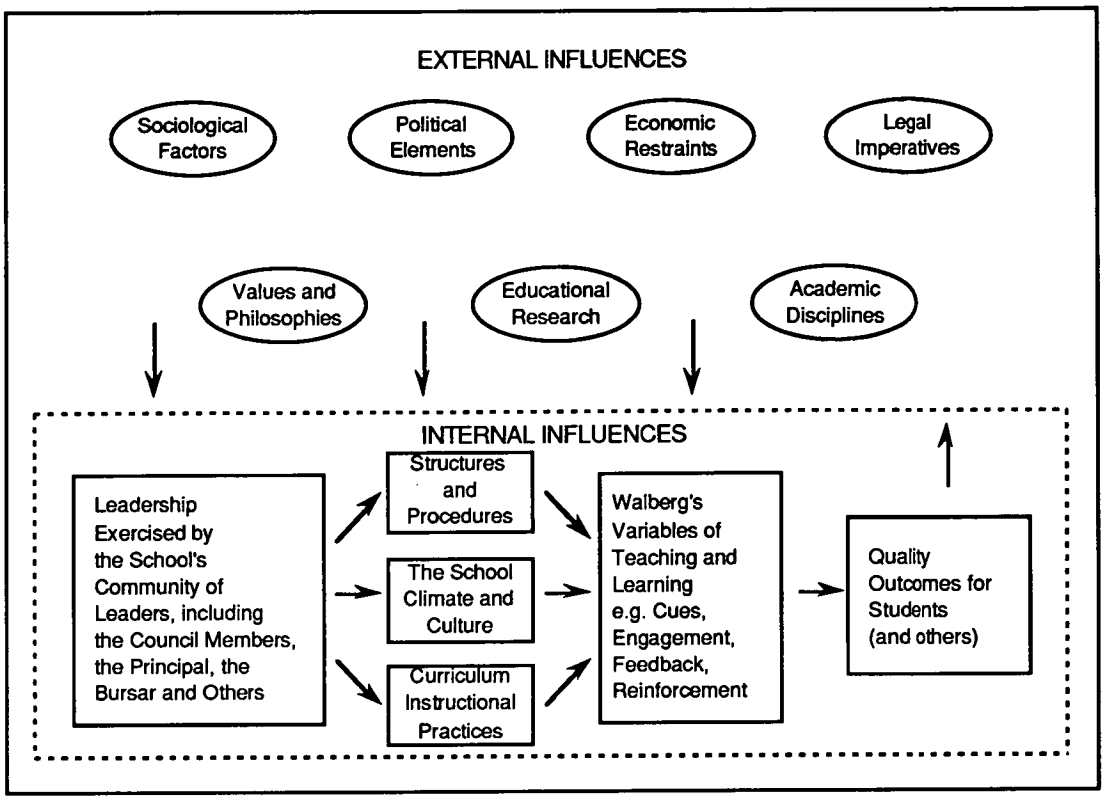
School culture, then, is taken to encompass the total environment of the school, not only its students, professional educators, staff, parents, and local community but also its buildings, plant, resources, intangibles such as intrinsic symbols, celebrations, and ethos. Any given school culture is a specific entity adapted to fit local conditions. Purkey & Smith (1985:364) emphasise that, while local responsibility for schools has to recognise the legal responsibility of higher government levels, and that no culture exists in isolation, the issues a school confronts in efforts to raise quality through policy making must be settled "in a manner dictated by the political and social contours of its particular educational landscape".

Models for effective school environments

1. A Walberg model

Recent research findings have more clearly defined elements which go to make up a total school environment. At the individual school level, both external and internal influences are given by Walberg (1990) as contributory to effectiveness in education. In general terms, the Walberg model, portrayed in Figure 5, indicates that a school is effective in producing student outcomes which maximise their academic, cultural, physical and spiritual potential in relation to the school community. Walberg identifies factors which promote this by dividing them into internal and external influences.

Figure 5. **A Walberg model (1990) for school effectiveness**



The model shows the initial internal influence as leadership, broadly exercised by both professionals and laity. Walberg then depicts three clusters of influences: school structures and procedures, climate and culture, and instructional practices. In turn, these impact on variables for teaching and learning as defined by Walberg himself. All these influences are shown as affecting quality outcomes for students, to which Walberg adds 'and others'. This is taken to mean other perceptions of quality by all those concerned with the learning institution.

According to Walberg (1990), internal influences are impacted upon by external environmental ones: sociological factors, political elements, economic restraints, legal imperatives, values and philosophies, educational research, and academic disciplines. These two complementary sets of influences, external and internal, are seen in the Walberg model to produce school effectiveness. He gives an interactive dimension to his design by illustrating quality outcomes flowing into the external environment, thereby proposing that a reciprocal process occurs within an effective school.

The inclusion in the Walberg model of council members in the leadership role has significance for the findings of this study. However, it is arguable that their role may be

more appropriately performed if not seen as taking place in the internal environment of the school's learning and teaching program. A more effective scenario may be to place the formal community contribution of governance at one remove, as it were, in the proximately external environment of a learning institution. Before arriving at such a depiction, some other models are considered.

2. Chrispeels and Pollack models

Internal and external influences on effectiveness of schools are also taken up by Chrispeels and Pollack (1990). Caldwell (1990:9) comments on the significance of their research lying in the specification of factors that are important as far as community impact on schools is concerned. Chrispeels & Pollack based their work on earlier research (Murphy, Hallinger & Mesa, 1985) which identified two major categories in school effectiveness: school technology and school environment. School technology was seen to encompass organising for curriculum and instruction, clear academic mission, direct instruction, frequent monitoring, and staff development. Under school environment were subsumed high expectations, collaborative processes, cohesion and support, and structures to include opportunity for involvement, rewards and recognition, safe and orderly environment, and homeschool support (Murphy, Hallinger, & Mesa, 1985:620).

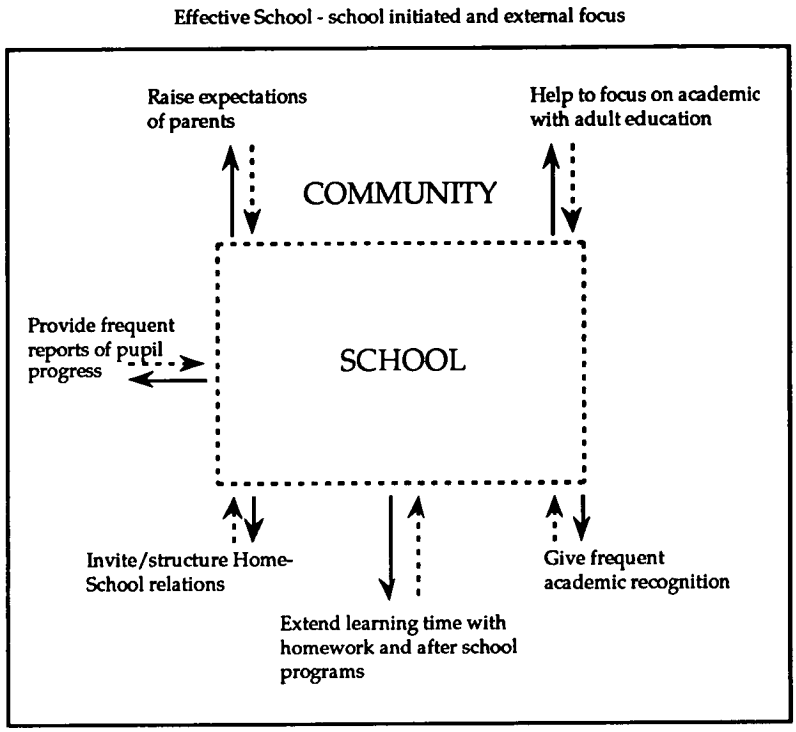
Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:6) also took note of later research of Hallinger & Murphy (1989:9) which suggested that:

> high SES and low SES effective schools are characterized by different patterns of curricular breadth, allocations of time for learning, school mission, patterns of principal instructional leadership, opportunities for student recognition, expectations for student achievement, and homeschool relations.

This notion of variability contingent on social factors coincides with the concept of local interpretations of culture, also with the social contours of particular educational landscapes referred to by Purkey & Smith (1985:364). They are apposite for this study because the locations to be investigated are considered as mainly in the higher SES bracket. Though commonsense would dictate though that no population (relatively small cities in the case of this study), however apparently developed or affluent, has exclusively one or other type of socioeconomic status.

Research findings (Murphy, Hallinger, & Mesa, 1985) on two dimensions of schooling - technology and environment - proved insightful to Chrispeels and Pollack. They have depicted a model (Figure 6.) of certain internal and external school characteristics, described as 'school correlates' (Chrispeels & Pollack, 1990:6)) to be embedded in an effective school.

Figure 6. **Chrispeels & Pollack (1990: 7) model: embedding school correlates**



School creates effective school factors within and develops factors in the social context of home and community.

School correlates include an academic focus (about which the community is well informed); frequent recognition of academic accomplishment; time on task; homeschool relationships; frequent informative reporting on outcomes; and raised expectations. These correlates are seen to be created within the school but are developed in the social context of home and community. They then become embedded in the community so that reciprocity develops between the community and the school, this further supports the school. The community is responding to the professionals who, in turn, receive a response from the community which affects their school. The model of Chrispeels & Pollack (Figure 6) reinforces the 'social capital' notion of Coleman & Hoffer (1987: 221) and the 'influences' modelled by Walberg (Figure 5).

Based on the later work of Hallinger and Murphy (1989), the contention of Chrispeels and Pollack (1990:6) is that the relationship of the school with the community is different according to the socioeconomic status (SES) of specific localities. They acknowledge that in high SES circumstances, "the community, in fact in many cases, infuses

the correlates into the school". This may not pertain with lower SES groups. However, Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:7) believe, "there is a growing number of instances in which high SES schools find themselves in a changing neighbourhood, and the school needs to engage in more embedding of the correlates". This accords with the previously expressed view in this present study that few communities can be regarded exclusively as of one socio-economic status.

To accomplish the best resolution for all SES groups, this Chrispeels & Pollack model (Figure 6) incorporates the significant factors they find to give internal and external focus.

Besides possible differentiation of school correlates due to socioeconomic status, there is also the question, put by Purkey & Smith (1985:364), as to whether the same policies produce effective elementary and secondary schools. This is pertinent to the concerns of this study as its parameters encompass both levels of schooling, as well as administration of vocational training. The studies of Chrispeels & Pollack (1990) were conducted in American elementary schools, those of Rutter *et al.* (1979) in British secondary schools. The content of programs, the school technology of which Murphy, Hallinger & Mesa (1985) write, is obviously different depending on the level of development of students.

But is the school environment at each level so different? School correlates and school ethos appear to be terms that resonate with each other. It is suggested here that the differences in organisation between elementary and secondary schools may be those of complexity and size rather than fundamental orientations or broad objectives regarding quality outcomes. Although Skilbeck (1990:9) gives his view that "the historically grounded sharp separation of the cultures of elementary and secondary schooling are no longer valid" he states that "there remain highly significant differences between these two stages of schooling". His concerns, however, appear to be centred on curricular issues and not on school environment.

Despite these views, all sectors appear to aspire to those goals of excellence: quality, equality, efficiency, effectiveness, and participation proposed by Fantini's equation (1986:44). Although Purkey & Smith (1985:368) suggest that "instructional leadership may be an unrealistic burden for secondary school principals", Duke (1986) refutes this in his wider definition of instructional leadership. Certainly there are examples of notable instructional leaders within the non-government sector in Australia. In institutions which cover the spectrum of provision for both primary and secondary schooling, this has been found by Hansen (1972), Darling (1978), Archdale (1972), Zainuddin (1982), Hogg (1986), Oats (1986), and Given (1987). During the macro and meso

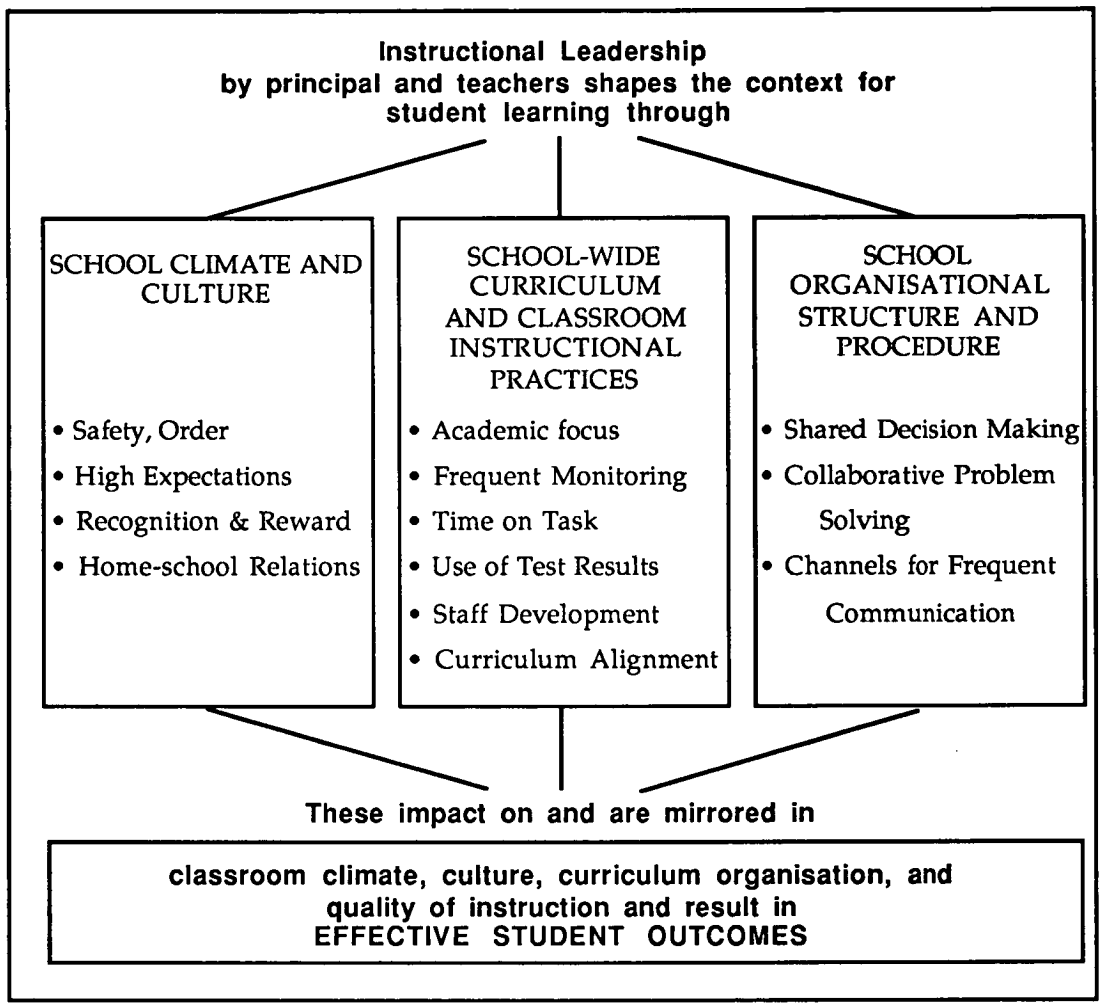
levels of inquiry for this study, leadership has been observed as significant in educational administration at many levels, political, bureaucratic, professional and, with, with the advent of participatory governance, community. It will be explored further at a micro level (Chapter 11).

The interrelatedness of school technology and school environment (Murphy, Hallinger, & Mesa, 1985) together with the different patterns of delivering education in schools (Hallinger & Murphy 1989:9) is recognised by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:5) as they depict the relationship of these factors in a diagram (Figure 7) to show the impact of these on student outcomes. This model came about from a five-year longitudinal study of ten elementary schools in California. It groups the previous findings of Murphy, Hallinger, & Mesa (1985) into three clusters of variables: school climate and culture, school-wide curriculum and classroom instructional practices, and school organisational structure and procedure.

According to Chrispeels & Pollack, these three clusters of variables impact and are mirrored in quality of instruction and result in effective student outcomes. It is demonstrated that these variables are predicated on 'instructional leadership' by the principal and teachers which shapes the context in which student learning may occur. Leadership is defined by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:5) as including the principal as well as the teacher leaders, they have "the primary responsibility of creating the school-wide variables which serve as the framework for all school activities and which are also mirrored in classroom practices". Chrispeels & Pollack's findings on instructional leadership coincide with Sergiovanni's (1987:122) concept of 'leadership density'.

The diagram (Figure 7) encapsulates interactive features of effective schools to produce quality outcomes. It highlights the importance of leadership as a component in quality education. However, this model does not appear to go far enough in clearly differentiating those external influences which have been acknowledged as significant factors. Environmental components may need depiction as being more than just peripheral to a learning institution's effectiveness in delivering quality education. It is submitted at this point in the present study, that, useful as the Walberg or Chrispeels & Pollack models are in identifying internal and external factors leading to outcomes of quality for students, the contribution of the external environment is not specifically recognised. Some delineation of these factors appears to be called for if the potential of community participation in administration is to be discerned and its influence on quality of education is to be gauged as an external environmental factor in a learning institution.

Figure 7. **Chrispeels and Pollack (1990:5) model indicating the relationship of the schoolwide effectiveness factors, leadership, and student outcomes in an effective school**



3. A contextual model for quality of education

There appear to be two major features in a catchment area conjured up by the notion of external school environment; community and authority. The impaction of overarching agencies of authority, government and educational bureaucracy, is pointed out by Purkey & Smith (1985:363) "Federal and state education agencies can create the conditions, provide stimuli, and even set policy guidelines within which the local districts and schools assume responsibility for program design and implementation". But agencies of authority do more than that. Governments in developed countries, such as those investigated during this study, endeavour to ensure equality in their enactment of legislation. The currently preferred term appears to be equity. Examples of equity assurance have been illustrated in

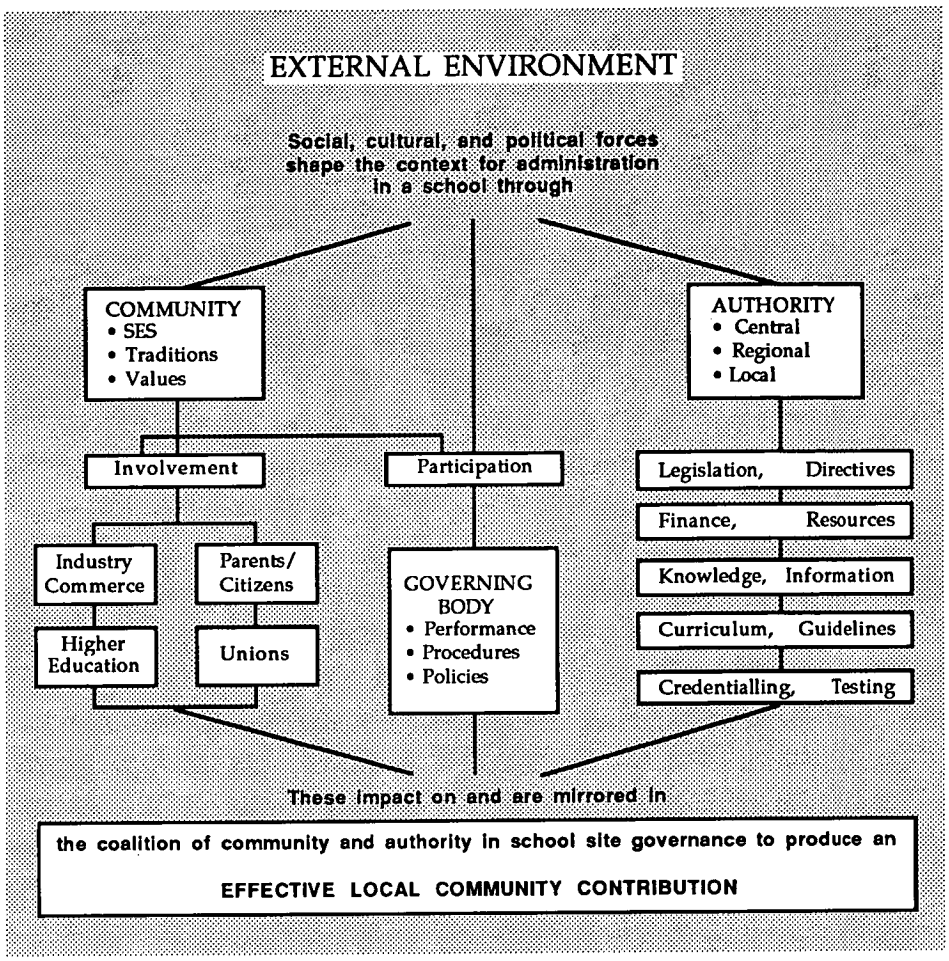
the Case Records. In New South Wales, Scott (1990b:99) called for "fairness and impartiality" in provision for education, while in New Zealand, Picot (1988:3) stated "Education should be fair and just for every learner regardless of their gender, and of their social, cultural or geographic circumstances".

Legislators may set the scene, but departmental officials issue the directives. They are expected to allocate finance and resources, to be a source of knowledge and information, and to provide curriculum guidelines, credentialling and testing mechanisms. They impinge on schooling at every level, central, regional or local, and in varying degrees, in countries which share the Australian heritage. However, it has become apparent in these devolutionary times that responsibility and accountability for administration of education are expected to be shared with local communities who participate in policy making on governing bodies of learning institutions.

The community features in the external environment through its specific traditions and values. Socioeconomic status has been found also to be critical. Involvement of specific community groups can be identified, among them those from industry and commerce, individual or collective parents and citizens' associations, local institutions of higher education, and unions. This involvement may be in the form of sponsorship or specifications for employability by the industrial/commercial sector. Practical, community contributions to schools have been acknowledged from Parents and Friends' Associations. Higher Education personnel may offer expertise or knowledge and information through research findings. The activities of teacher unions, especially with regard to management of change for professionals, have been noted in the Case Records as having considerable impact on schools. As Purkey & Smith (1985:371) caution, "creating effective schools may depend on the ability of the teachers' unions and the district administration to work together".

While none of these involvements can be ignored, they will not be pursued further here. For it is the participation of the community in the form of a governing body, which is seen as a central component of the external environment. Formal participation by a governing body is shown in Figure 8 to epitomise this community participation through its policies, performance and procedures. These elements will be shown in Chapter 10 to derive from the patterns, processes and politics evident in the Case Records (Chapters 5 and 6.) A model of the external environment of a learning institution (Figure 8) has been designed to depict social, cultural, and political forces that are seen to shape the context for administration and management in a school.

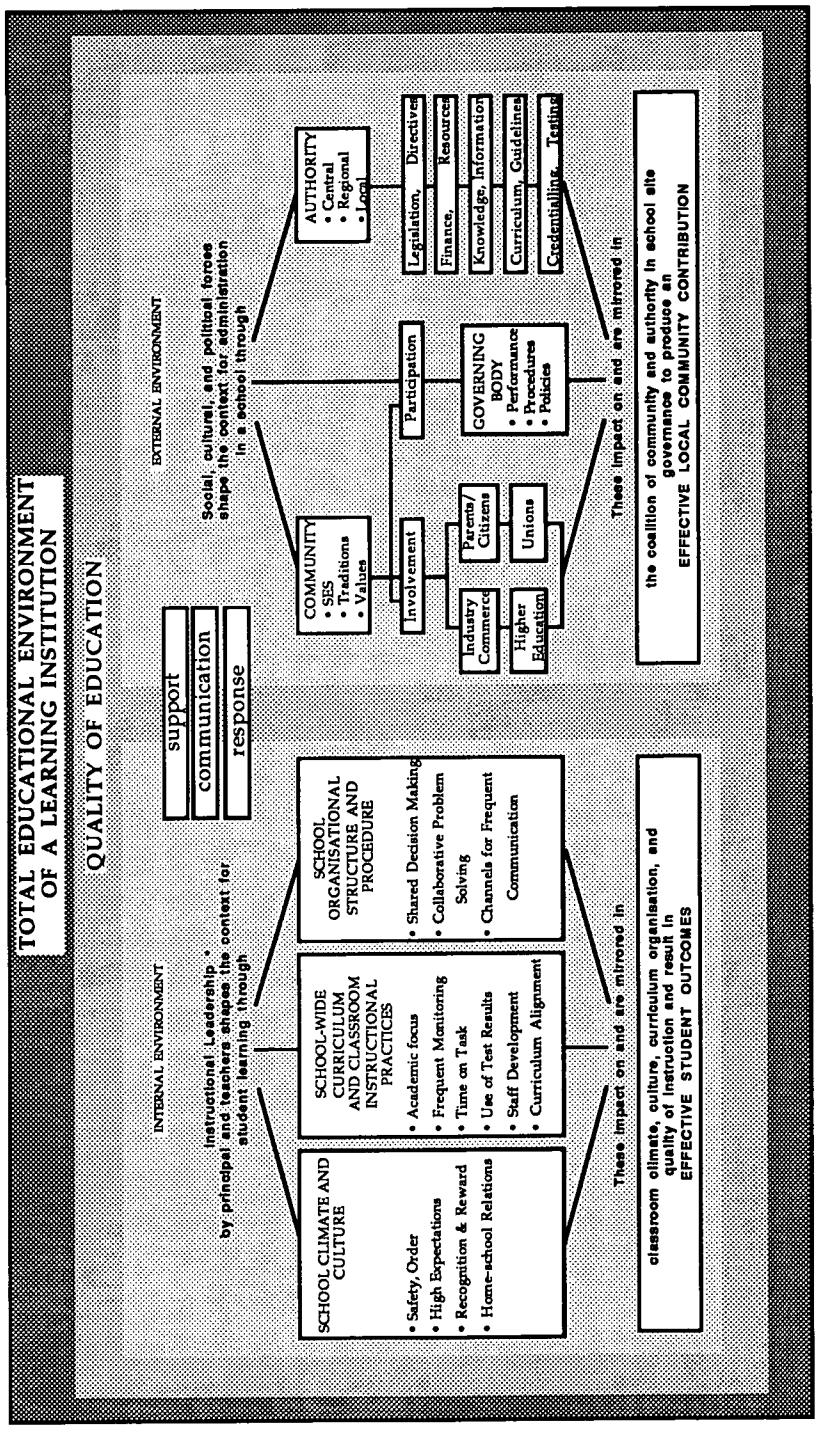
Figure 8. **The external environment of a learning institution showing the relationship of community and authority to participatory governance**



It is conjectured that these forces impact on, and are mirrored in, the coalition of community and authority in school-site governance to produce an effective community contribution. This model is designed to replicate the Chrispeels & Pollack diagram (Figure 7) that depicts the professional contribution.

In this chapter, it has been argued that wider perspectives for quality outcomes in learning institutions should be taken. Teaching, learning, and leadership have been established as important internal elements in a school environment. The external elements have been indicated as those pertaining to the community and to agencies of authority (Figure 8). It cannot be forgotten that leadership is a component of the external environment, too. Leadership by the school's community was stressed in the Walberg model (Figure 5), but as an internal influence. This leadership role is subsumed in the contextual model as integral to 'performance' and will be examined in greater detail during the case studies in Chapter 11.

Figure 9. **Contextual model of quality of education for governance study**



The external environment depicted in Figure 8 comprises the input that the community, in both the local and wider sense (politicians and bureaucrats are also people in a community), can make to the quality of education. It is regarded as complementary to the internal environment. For the purposes of a school governance study, the Chrispeels & Pollack model (Figure 7) has been taken to be the internal environment of a school. This with Figure 8 comprise Figure 9. The integration illustrates a total educational environment

of an effective learning institution. The two environments co-exist but not in any hierarchical structure. This demonstrates the significance which the one is supposed to have for the other as partners in the administrative enterprise to enhance quality. Mutual support, communication and response appear to be the necessary linkages between the internal and external environments of learning institutions. The background in the model of a total educational environment is seen as quality of education.

Section 4 of this thesis will examine three cases of governing bodies supporting, communicating and responding to their learning institutions. For a learning institution to be effective in achieving its primary purpose, instructional leadership must shape the internal context to ensure quality outcomes for students. The internal environment needs formal support from the community. This is facilitated through communication. A reciprocity should then develop whereby professionals and laity come to a deeper understanding of quality in the local setting. In this way, response to social and educational change may be expected to occur.

Summary of Chapter 8

The focus of this study is on the possibility of a community contribution to educational quality in a learning institution. In this chapter, the place of a governing body has been depicted (Figure 9) as integral to total institutional effectiveness. Although it has been accepted that there "is no simple unidimensional measure for quality" (Karmel, 1985:3) and that there are many perspectives on it, effectiveness has been correlated with educational quality. Education in learning institutions (whether labelled effective or exemplary or excellent schools) has been found to encompass external environmental elements to complement the primary purpose of instruction (Purkey & Smith, 1985:355) in the internal environment.

Quality of education is contributed to by the total environment of a school, therefore a governing body has the opportunity to enhance educational quality through their administrative performance, procedures and policies.

This chapter has examined quality, effectiveness and equality, three of the five units from the equation for excellence proposed by Fantini (1986:44). The remaining two - efficiency and participation - are subjects of the following chapter on administration and participatory governance.

Chapter 9

Educational Quality: Implications for Administration

Efficiency and participation are two constituents of excellence in learning institutions. Although this study is concerned with administration of schools, not instructional practice in them, recognition has been made in the previous chapter that the one is not exclusive of the other. Consideration is given in this chapter to both theory and practice of efficient imposition of order in organisations, such as schools, to achieve excellent quality. Account is taken of the formal participation of community in that administrative function. Underlying the discussion is the postulation of Hodgkinson (1983:2) that "administration is philosophy-in-action". This theme is to be further developed in this chapter. Theoretical and practical issues of administration - values, realities, ideologies, and pragmatics - are examined. An Australian working model of collaborative administration is described. Ways of looking at administrative practicalities: policy making, policy makers and policies, are specified. But first, the basic taxonomy of administration and management of Hodgkinson (1983) is further explained with the addition of differentiated roles he proposes for the process. These considerations are seen as apposite to the concerns of efficiently organising participatory governance of schools.

The administrative process

Taxonomies of administrative processes have been identifying components to theoretically superimpose order in organisations for many years. Hodgkinson (1981:144) modestly claims that his model, P3M3 (see Figure 2, page 25), is 'a marginal increment' to those of POSDCORB (Fayol, Gulick & Urwick, 1937; Litchfield, 1956) or SLOCUS (Thomas, 1978). The aforementioned acronyms for taxonomies of administration probably owe their origins to Taylor's (1915) 'time and motion' principles. Hodgkinson (1981:146) recognises that his superimposition of order is in the 'ideal type' format of Weber. While these two precedents identified components of administration - decision making, communicating, controlling - it is Hodgkinson's (1981:144) view that they did not explain why administrators do what they do, did not indicate the time-frame in which they rest, nor establish connections within and between the items.

In the P3M3 taxonomy, Hodgkinson postulates a non-rigid sequence which provides a theoretical guide to administrative process. It distinguishes logically different categories of administration and management. Hodgkinson (1981:145) describes the function of his sequential model:

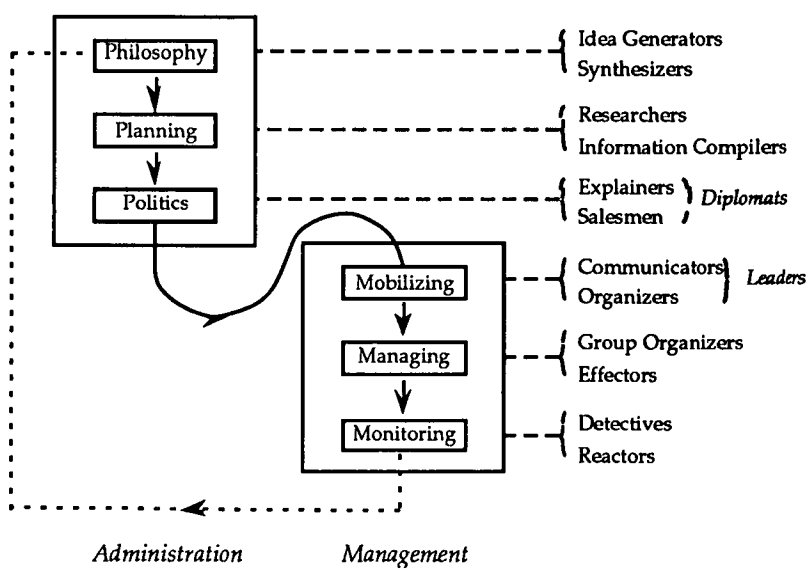
> By means of administrative processes which are abstract, philosophical, qualitative, strategic, and humanistic in essence and by means of managerial processes which are concrete, practical, pragmatic, quantitative, technical and technological in nature ... Organizational values are articulated by top level administration through philosophical processes (argument, dialectic, logic, rhetoric, and value clarification). This is the level of idea. The idea emergent from this first phase must be translated into some sort of plan and reduced to a written, persisting, and communicable form. This form must then be entered into a political process of persuasion. This is the domain of power, resource control, and politics and we have moved from the level of ideas to the level of people. Coalitions must be formed, levers pulled, persons persuaded as power and support are marshalled around the project or plan. Each of these phases of administration can be subsumed under the rubric of policy making.

The distinction which Hodgkinson (1981:146) sees between the two processes is one between the art of the philosophy of policy making and the science of management, which he sees as policy implementation.

Differentiated roles in administration

Hodgkinson realises the limitations of his basic taxonomic model unless it is allied to what he terms 'cognitive correlates'. By this he means the human skills, styles and orientations of those persons involved. To distinguish these 'correlates', Hodgkinson employs the work of de Bono (1971, 1976) who categorised ideal types of persons who demonstrated special aptitudes relevant to tasks. The P3M3 Taxonomy (Figure 10) illustrates the alignment of types of people according to de Bono.

FIGURE 10. **Hodgkinson (1981:148) P3M3 Taxonomy** aligned to de Bono typology



For the administrative processes of P3, policy making (M3, management processes, are given in Figure 10, but not defined as are P3 processes below), Hodgkinson (1981:147) selected from

de Bono's typology the following ideal types of people for administration, with operational definitions for each.

Idea Generators	Those who pride themselves on their ability to generate new ideas new concepts and new hypotheses. Those who are interested in creativity and new ideas. This must be a general ability not the intention to pursue one single new idea that may have arisen at some time in the past.
Synthesizers	Those who are good at putting together a mass of data and then boiling it down to what is important. Those who are good at bringing different things together and from synthesis creating something new.
Researchers	Those who are good at putting together information to expand upon an idea or to support it. Those who are good at doing experiments in the real world or the world of already accumulated information.
Information Compilers	Those who are good at collecting and collating information. They know where to find information and they know how to keep it alive and accessible.
Explainers	Those who are good at taking a complicated situation and explaining it in a direct and simple way. This is not unlike the role of a science journalist. The task of clarification and simplification must not assume special intelligence on the part of the receiver.
Salesmen	Those who are good at the very important process of creating interest in others. In its proper sense it is a way of enrolling the emotions of others through a change in their perceptions.

Awareness of the nature of people and the needs of society (Hughes, 1981:9) is an essential pre-condition for effective school government, so the theories of Hodgkinson are used in this study as a gauge of what administration in the context of participatory governance of learning institutions might be. Hodgkinson's postulations establish some figurative benchmarks by which to assess the potential of coalitions such as governing bodies in educational administration.

Administration through governing bodies is removed from the field of action in learning institutions (Kogan *et al.* 1984:52). It is, to use Gronn's (1984:67) expression, at the "talkface" rather than the "chalkface". This very abstraction provides participants in governance with opportunities for reflection, observation, evaluation, and detection in a more detached, external environment than that available to those embroiled in the learning and teaching activities of the internal environment of schools. That both environments can combine to provide a beneficial institutional ecology to substantiate quality in education for students has been considered in the previous chapter. The conceptual mapping which P3M3 provides draws attention to the different approaches necessary to reach satisfactory outcomes for administrative and managerial modes of organisation by executives and professionals. Hodgkinson's treatment of the terrain diagnoses the elements of both environments but also, in abstract terms, it establishes a significant linkage between them. This connection occurs at the point in Hodgkinson's model

where the human resources in administration motivate those in management to the organisational purpose, and also where feed back is provided to generate further executive deliberation.

To summarise the utility of the taxonomy to both internal and external sectors in a learning institution it is appropriate to quote the warning Hodgkinson (1981:151) issues:

> Not to do all of the six things, not to have them done by the right people, not to be aware and self conscious of the stages, and not to articulate them is simply not to be firing on all six cylinders, The organization may still work but its metavalues of efficiency and effectiveness, survival and growth are at hazard.

Administration and philosophy

This notion that "administration is philosophy in action" was postulated by Hodgkinson (1983: 2). His division of the discipline of philosophy into the ontological, axiological and epistemological parts is exemplified in administrative processes as they apply to the execution of policy by executives in organisations, educational administrators among them. Although recognising that ontology may not have direct bearing upon administration, Hodgkinson (1983:4) suggests that, indirectly, "an executive's behaviour pattern may be significantly determined by his belief system". Axiology, the study of value, is argued by Hodgkinson (1983:5) to be the very substance of the administrative art form: "the emergence of values, their realization through cooperative action, the resolution of their conflict in administrative process, their debate and containment within the organizational political arena - all this is a daily or hourly part of executive experience".

Hodgkinson (1983: 6) asserts that "logic is the executive's basic tool" and he goes on to give logic as a subdivision of epistemology, the growth of knowledge. The significance to organisational reality of the executive's critical faculty and skills is stressed by Hodgkinson as part of his argument that philosophy is central to administrative process and behaviour.

The utility of Hodgkinson's theories appears to have relevance for administration as exemplified in participatory governance, particularly as regards the theoretical concepts of values, realities, ideologies, and pragmatics implicit in them. Each of these concepts is examined from the standpoint of efficiency and participation.

Values in administration

In the categorisation of the taxonomy Hodgkinson (1983:28) makes it very clear that neither major categories, administration and management, nor any of the six sub-categories, "can be considered as value free". Hodgkinson (1983:38) classifies values in an hierarchical paradigm. They range from those which evidence personal preference (Type III values, allied to feelings and affect), through those pertaining to consequences of actions (Type IIA, involving reasoning) to those which are primarily a search for consensus (Type IIB,

(involving thinking). Paramount values, Type I, are at the level of principles and appear as major acts of commitment.

Hodgkinson (1983:24) stresses that "the ethos or culture, the large scale contemporary pattern of value orientation, abstract though it may be, is a matter for continuous executive monitoring and concern". Allied to Hodgkinson's postulation, the Greenfield (1978:3) concept of organisations holds with their dependence on meanings and purposes that individuals bring to them from the wider society. It draws attention to the significance of self, to the type of person in an executive role. To this Hodgkinson would undoubtedly add, the type of value held by that executive person, albeit the somewhat amateur executive the lay participant in governance may actually be.

Hodgkinson (1983:138) finds that to type is a basic human instinct. His value paradigm contributes understanding of the pervasive importance which values have for organisations, such as schools and their governing bodies. Type 1 transcendental or religious values may be present in, say, Catholic schools studied by Coleman & Hoffer (1987). They may reasonably be expected to have "a galvanizing and synergetic effect upon organizational performance" as Hodgkinson (1983:113) asserts, and to which he adds this rider: "Even when they are not shared by all I would argue that the mere presence of a single actor with Type I commitments is enough to radically affect the organizational character, such is the potency of Type I value and the mystery of social chemistry".

Consequential (Type II A) and consensual (Type II B) values would seem to be those required in administration by participatory governance if an effective collaboration is to be achieved. The characteristics of Type III values ego, self interest, primary affect and motivation would likely be present in any organisation made up as it is of human beings. It is apparent that the good or bad, the right or wrong, the efficiency or effectiveness of administration is down to real people with personally held values. values are shown to be critical to organisations. In Hodgkinson's (1983:53) words, "It is the highest function of the executive to develop a deep understanding of himself and his fellows, a knowledge of human nature which includes motivation but reaches beyond it into the domain of value possibilities".

Hodgkinson's emphasis on having the different stages he proposes done by the right people is a model for organisational practice. An obvious conclusion from these propositions is that the professional educator cannot be the right person for every eventuality in such a process. This becomes even more apparent when the human skills, styles and orientations, exemplified by de Bono, are entered on Hodgkinson's taxonomy. It would seem to be impossible for any one school principal to have all of these attributes. A broad spectrum collective of good and right people would appear more adequate for efficient administration.

Realities in administration

Turning from efficiency in organisations to the element of participation in administration, is to encounter another factor that Hodgkinson (1983:58) sees in accord with the value paradigm. It is the affective life experience in organisations, its reality. While organisations *per se* cannot be morally responsible, individuals who coalesce within them obviously can be. Nevertheless, the reality is that organisations are collectively more powerful than individuals and can act in the world. Realities for the individual participant, recognised by Hodgkinson as implicit in organisations, include loss of autonomy, collective impress, conflict, experience of organisation dysfunction, secrecy, old boy networks, and executive ambition. While such components present a depressing picture, they may be balanced by the other organisational realities: order, structure, determinism, consistency, and predicability. In keeping with the highest type of value, reality for the participant in administration can be acknowledged in Hodgkinson's (1983:77) terms, as "the realm of individual experience which, at least in potential, is voluntaristic or free".

The reality of organisation is that imposition of order is necessary in schools if their primary purpose of instruction or learning is to be achieved. As Hodgkinson expresses organisational reality it echoes with the sentiments expressed about schools being the last remaining centres of community for many locations. In the Canadian Case Record, Fleming (1990:14) is quoted as saying "Schools bring us together to preserve a sense of community which might otherwise vanish". Other Canadians (Storey et al., 1988:4) view school as a "major instrument for expression of public will in a democratic society". In the Tasmanian Case Record, the comment of the Rosebery Council Chairman noted his view of the governance task as "a wonderful interest in an isolated place". Such quotations indicate the place schools can occupy in a community. Hodgkinson (1983:85) expresses this succinctly by writing:

> In a pluralistic society where values are in conflict and cultural transmissions are breaking down, the patterned order of neofeudal organizations may well be an enclave of psychological stability. For here ... each man knows his role, has his place, is guaranteed economic sustenance and social identity is return for his fealty.

In reality, almost every adult at this point in the twentieth century has experienced schooling. Many have valued that experience, some have not. In any local community there will be persons who value schooling more than others. There will be persons, whose Type I values adhere to the high liberalising objectives of education, and those whose Type III values cause them to query what schooling has done for them. Throughout much of this century, but not much before it, compulsory education for the young

has been organised in the form of schools. Organisation of them has developed, in the locations typified in the Case Records at least, into one of central control authorised by the government. Alternatively, there has been private enterprise provision, characterised, to a greater or lesser extent, by the British Public School model.

Allegiances and alienations have occurred as a result. Feelings about schools by the public, and parents in particular, can be ambivalent as Connell *et al.* (1982) illustrated in Australia. Parents can also be apathetic to educational concerns which are not immediate to the needs of their own families. In the last decade of this century, a distinctive trend is evident to decentralise many functions to institutional administration in which the public may participate. The precedent established by the non-government system appears to have something to offer as a model for self-governance by community participants. As one delegate to the Parents' Associations meeting in Tasmania is recorded as commenting "We'd be like private schools if there were councils in our schools". This point is reinforced by Beare (1991:21) about what he terms 'the privatisation syndrome' of present day restructuring and devolution.

School governing bodies offer members of a local community an opportunity to join a formal organisation. Organisations are hierarchical power structures. There comes with executive membership a certain kudos. Consequently the motivations of persons to participate in governance are varied and would range across the value paradigm. Commitment to serve the community might be viewed as a Type I value. Representing an association or industry could epitomise Type II values of consequence. Political ambition is noted by Pepper (1989) as a motivating force for joining School Boards in the United States. This may be interpreted in a careerist light, but politicians have an authentic concern with group values. Therefore their participation could be regarded as fitting with the consensual values, Type II B. Hodgkinson (1983:81) expresses a view that the individual may escape into an organisation as a "haven, a place of warm security and predictability; its impersonality, order and routine a source of psychological consolation and philosophical meaning". Such a position may exemplify Type III values. Attribution of values in these ways illustrates the reality of value pervasion in organisations.

Ideologies in administration

Lying at the other end of the organisational spectrum from reality, ideology permeates such a value laden phenomenon as administration. The practical import of value pervasion is that Type I values "are the fundament of all ideologies" according to Hodgkinson (1983:92). He finds ideologies enter reality through individuals and through

organisational systems. Hodgkinson (1983:67) cites as one constituent of our cultural reality "our entire culture and civilization rests on the presumption of the legitimacy in our institutions".

Ideology includes all religious and political philosophies. These may be principles, beliefs, major commitments and high motivations. Herein lies the paradox of value typology, for a principled belief (Type I value) in the rightness of one's cause, say in the vocation of teaching, could lead either to the enlightenment of developing minds or to deleterious indoctrination of the young. In administration, an executive with ostensibly altruistic motives may contribute much to planning new resources for an organisation but may be motivated by ambition or envy which eventually compromise the integrity of an institution. Ideology can fire excesses. Commitment can prove to be too powerful if individuals in organisations are not curbed. The imposition of formal business procedures, strong leadership by the chairperson in conducting meetings, and written guidelines as to the parameters of particular governing bodies, may counteract excesses of zeal or personal ideologies. Such practicalities lead to consideration of the pragmatics of administration.

Pragmatics in administration

The pragmatics of administration are given by Hodgkinson as coming between those realities and ideologies of organisation, for he sees the values implicit in this pragmatic level as lying at the midpoint of the typology. Hodgkinson (1983:120) acknowledges as the middle ground, the commonsense and reasonableness of "the vast region of normality the everyday, workaday world of organizational life". Problem finding, problem creating and problem solving are asserted by Hodgkinson (1983:121) to characterise this organisational life which is "in a word, the pragmatic". The pragmatist, Hodgkinson (1983:122) contends, "seeks to avoid engagement in matters of principle, he searches instead for the politically possible". Hodgkinson (1983:125) finds that a pressure to pragmatism, the pragmatic impress, prevails within most administrative contexts.

Consensus and reasoned consequence values, Type II A and II B, may be expected as the practical and comfortable outcomes of collective decision making and collaborative problem solving to be experienced in school governance by rank and file participants in it. The level of commitment is another practical point; it may be demonstrated by the regularity of attendance at meetings, or contributions whilst present.

The actual size of the governance committee has been shown to be a practical issue. In the Irish Case Record, comment was noted on the virtual impossibility of reaching consensus in one over-wieldy executive group of thirty participants. Alternatively, a

complement of sixteen in a Yorkshire school was regarded as "a great combination". New Zealand prescribes the composition of a Board of Trustees (Picot, 1988:50): five members elected by the parents of students, the principal, one staff and one student elected member, and "such other coopted members as the board of trustees thinks fit". An attendance fee is paid to those trustees to encourage wider community participation by compensation for financial costs of involvement in governance. This is unusual, although some other locations offer out-of-pocket expenses. In future, some monetary recompense may be needed if the devolutionary trend is to continue to attract participants to school-site governance.

Evidence of media attention, often sharply critical, has been presented in the Case Records. The values expressed in media are usually in accord with those of the public they serve. As a consequence, it would appear, as Kogan *et al.* (1984:71) observe, "Education is no longer regarded as a self evident good to be preserved and expanded at all costs". Yet, as Tyler (1982:52) comments ,"schools depend on community support, and rely on public relations to maintain their image".

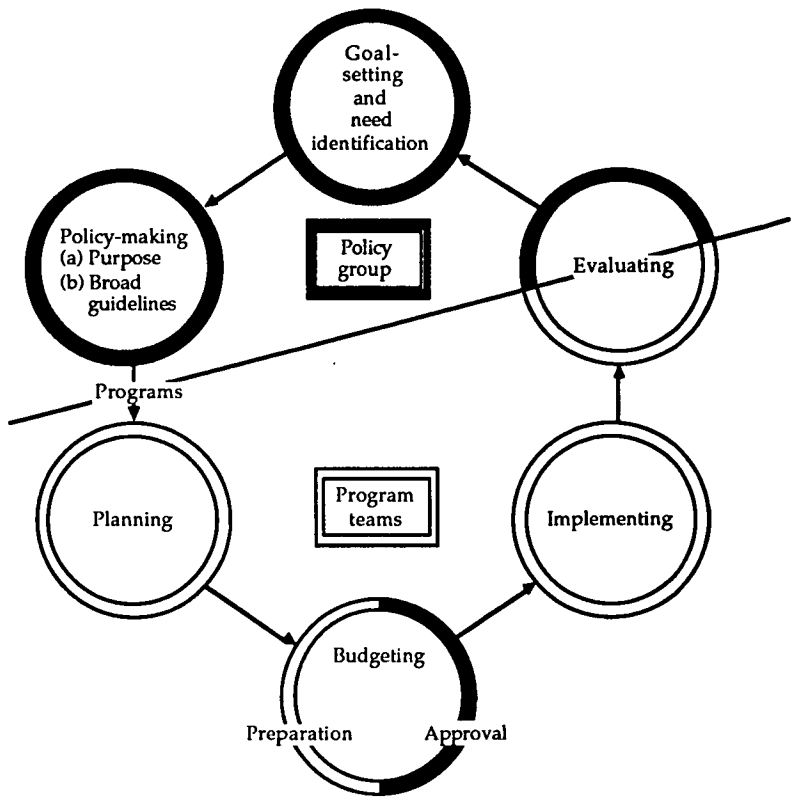
To sum up to this point, values epitomised in ideological perspectives are identified as Type I. In educational administration, Type 1 values would be those which are grounded in the ideal of quality education provision. Political expediency may indicate that the Type II values of consensus and consequence are involved in the process, too. Nonetheless, the ideology which undergirds that provision is attainment of quality outcomes from the learning. Those 'goals of great worth' of which Caldwell,(1990a:2) writes, are the underlying values in schools, not only for the professionals who manage the teaching but for the administrators whose deliberations determine the organisation required to support that teaching.

While Hodgkinson (1983:134) maintains that professionalism is an ideology in its own right, he also suggests that the amateurism of administration is ideologically based. Pursuance of outcomes of educational quality for students is a high ideal: professional and layperson can participate in the pursuit of it through administration of schools. The practicalities of efficient and participative organisation are exemplified in an Australian model of school-site government, the Collaborative School Management Cycle (Caldwell & Spinks, 1988:22). It provides additional and useful benchmarks by which to gauge educational quality in effective learning institutions.

Collaborative Administration

Specifications by Caldwell & Spinks for a 'policy making group' and a 'program team' are given in a Collaborative School Management Cycle (Figure 11). This model correlates with the distinctive characteristics given by Hodgkinson's P3M3 model to categorise administration as policy making, and management as policy implementation.

Figure 11. **The Collaborative School Management Cycle**



One difference in the two models is that planning is seen as the prerogative of the program implementers in the Collaborative Cycle, not of the policy group, as in Hodgkinson's P3M3. In the Caldwell & Spinks (1988) model (Figure 11) the tasks of the policy group is marked in black. These tasks are given as setting goals for, and identifying the needs of the institution, as well as establishing policies and priorities for the program group's planning and implementation activities. Tasks shared with the program team are those concerned with budget and evaluation.

However, Caldwell & Spinks (1988:23) explain that even distinctive tasks still have "a high degree of overlap as far as personnel are concerned and a continuing, high level of formal and informal communication". This model was observed in active form at Rosebery District High School (Tasmanian Case Record, Chapter 6). The model has evolved in that school over a long period, since 1977. Caldwell & Spinks (1988:50) confirm that the school (Kindergarten - Year 10) has experienced considerable benefits for its students through devising and using this system. Significant benefits are also claimed to accrue to the policy group and to the professional educators.

Documentation which results from the collaborative deliberations - policy statements, program plans and budgets, reports of evaluations, surveys of members of the school community - are expected to strictly adhere to guidelines for minimum paperwork. They are to be "be free of jargon so that they can be read and understood by all members of the school community" (Caldwell & Spinks, 1988:167). A further cautionary note is given for the educational role of the policy group: "Meetings of the policy group should be organised to reflect a concern, for educational goals, policies, budgets, and evaluation. Time devoted to minutes, correspondence, operational matters, and noneducational issues should be kept to a minimum".

Caldwell & Spinks (1988:237) emphasise the necessity to identify and state the underlying philosophy of the institution. A series of statements is advocated to give "the basic premises that all concerned agreed should determine and guide developments". Among twelve statements of school philosophy at Rosebery District High School, three are of import to this present study:

> We take account of the fact that the community as a whole expects students to have achieved certain educational goals by the time that they leave school.
>
> The school's curriculum must provide a general education for each child, be useful and highlight common purposes to which all can subscribe.
>
> We practise shared decision making.

This practical outworking of philosophical underpinnings to administration touches on the value orientations outlined in Hodgkinson's typology. So, too, on more mundane level perhaps than Hodgkinson's 'realities' in organisations, Caldwell & Spinks (1988) are aware of real problems in implementing a Collaborative Cycle in educational management. At various junctures they identify such difficulties as divergent goals, financial restraints, criticism of professional judgement, competitive or adversarial conditions, workloads, and, especially, conflict and management of change. But here again, as with Hodgkinson's ideological aspects of organisation, the positive outcomes from all the collaborative policy making and planning, should be that the participants in it understand and accept the processes as having ultimate benefits for students' learning (Caldwell & Spinks, 1988:50).

The practicalities of administration

It has been established that administration is about policy making. A premise of this study is that educational administration is not confined to financial management of an institution but has a fundamental concern with quality of education therein. But the ways schools are governed, the way learning within them is organised and the information required to manage the school finances cannot be separated. This view is corroborated by Shipman (1990:116) from his English, post Education Reform Act, 1988 perspective. In his opinion, management is more than administration (an opposite view to Hodgkinson's) because it is a

means to an end, whereas management of schools is predicated on promotion of learning. However, Shipman (1990:8) stresses the importance of information to both sectors because its availability "affects not just the distribution of authority within schools and between staff, governors and parents, but the organisation itself". In Shipman's (1990:11) opinion, the Reform Act (1988) "breaks the professional grip on the flow of information across what has been in the past been a boundary between home and school that was carefully controlled by teachers". As an instance of this, Shipman (1990:116) cites the information for controlling expenditure which is required to give governors indications of costs related to their effectiveness in promoting learning. He admits "it is easy to mock Management by Objectives or Programme Budgeting Systems" for their seeming lack of concern with learning and apparent divorcement from the political aspects of school life. Shipman finds such techniques ensure that those involved in decision making about schools know what is supposed to be going on in them. He finds that the demand for expenditure information leads to demand for other 'control information' directly related to learning. Shipman (1990:117) emphasises the need for practical ways forward which take account of the culture of learning that lies behind school effectiveness. He recommends the work of Caldwell & Spinks.

Policy making, policy makers, and policies

What Shipman (1990:116) asserts to be the means to management, administration, is the arena of policy making, policy makers and policy. Administration, that arena of 'means', is the focus of this governance study.

Hodgkinson (1981:14) subsumes the three phases of administration philosophy, planning and politics under the 'rubric of policy making'. The middle phase , according to Hodgkinson (1981:145) has to emerge into "written, persisting, and communicable form'" In short, decisions are formalised in policies. Some of the main areas of decision making in learning institutions in Australia are identified by Connors (1978:31) as "principles; aims and objectives; curriculum; staffing and staff development; evaluation and assessment; buildings; and finance and administration". Connors (1978:39) asserts that "Schools in Australia require leadership and support in the formulation of broad philosophical aims and goals of education". Some formulations will, of course, be centralised prescriptions to undergird financial allocation and address issues of social justice. In future, it is the contention of this study, many decisions will be made by administration in the form of participatory governance in self-governing institutions. These formulations will be the policies which guide those organisations.

Documentation of policies is given as an important component in the Collaborative School Management Cycle. Caldwell & Spinks (1988:41) define a policy as a "statement of purpose and one or more broad guidelines as to how that purpose is to be achieved". Written policies provide frameworks for the operation of the institution and its programs. The

policies provide frameworks for the operation of the institution and its programs. The assertion by Hodgkinson (1983:203) that "Our values are couched in language and we seek more or less continuously to change the values of others through such language games as rhetoric, politics and diplomacy" has implications both for written policy statements and for the process of policy making which is made collaboratively. Verbal manifestations of language in the "political process of persuasion" has been identified by (Hodgkinson, 1981:145). It is analysed in depth by Gronn (1982, 1983, 1984) who finds that talk accomplishes administration. In particular, that principals may use talk to control business meetings or manipulate school personnel. Formal, written policies may circumvent such informal, though persuasive, activity as talk.

With regard to the practical outcomes of administration in the form of policies, Caldwell & Tymko (1980) advise that all documentation of policies should be based on the philosophical underpinnings of the decision making. In a useful guide book on policy making for education, Caldwell & Tymko (1980) emphasise the critical issue of policy formulation that should be resolved if governance is to be effective. Caldwell & Tymko (1980:111) insist that governing boards will benefit from well written and continuously updated policies. The sequential, practical procedures for governance policy making advocated by Caldwell & Tymko are summarised in the following list:

- accept the need for a policy making process
- adopt a policy for policy making
- identify one or two individuals on the governing body to guide the process
- appoint a policy writer
- consult widely through the institution
- consider responses to emerging problems and issues
- collect information
- choose from alternatives in adopting any policy
- decide simple criteria for analysis of each policy
- adopt each policy
- communicate the policy to all interested or affected by it
- package the policy manual
- update policies regularly and systematically
- schedule policy reviews
- maintain a continuing capability for effective policy making.

Conclusion to Section 3

Formal authority to make policy is implicit in the organisation of school-site government. Power, responsibility, and accountability come with the authority accorded to organisations. In participatory governance it is exercised by a collective of community participants who bring to the activity their individual values and levels of commitment, expertise and experience. Hodgkinson (1983:8) observes that "policy makers come to the table prejudiced and predisposed". Such an observation lends weight to Greenfield's (1968:207) argument "what do facts and theories mean, if what we see depends upon our values, assumptions, and experiences, ultimately upon self?". However, Hughes *et al.*

to gain from Hodgkinson's philosophical analysis of administration. It is Hodgkinson's (1978:146) conclusion that: "administrators need a technique for resolving value conflicts which is superior to the methods of avoidance, least resistance or lowest principle. To gain such a technique they must do some philosophy".

The issue of educational quality and its implications for administration have formed the substance of this central section of the governance study. These considerations have emphasised the core objectives of schooling: learning and teaching. Excellent education has been equated with quality, equality, effectiveness, efficiency and participation. The possibility that outcomes of quality can be enhanced by formal contributions from community through participatory governance has been exemplified in a contextual model for the total environment of a learning institution. Theoretical and practical issues in administration have been examined. The values and beliefs of participants have been shown to impinge on the administrative function. The realities and pragmatics of organisations have been illustrated.

Differentiated roles for administrators and exemplary policy making have been defined. This section has relied on findings from the macro and meso level inquiry (Section 2) to ground deliberations that have been derived from theories of administration. Section 3 is intended to set the scene, and form bases and criteria, for the micro level inquiry into present practice of governance in three learning institutions that follow in the fourth section of the thesis.

SECTION 4: Micro level inquiry into governance performance, procedures, and policies

Chapter 10

Inquiry: Linkages and Methodological Considerations

It has been shown that attainment of quality appears to be a common objective of learning institutions at any level of provision of education. Criteria for gauging the effectiveness of learning institutions to attain quality were put forward in the preceding section. Indications were given of the possibility of community participation in governance enhancing quality. This was not seen to occur at the end point of delivering education in the internal environment of the school, but through the part a governing body could play, from its external position, as a means to that delivery.

In this section, the criteria that have been established will be used as gauges of productive performance by school governors. Findings from investigation of the operation of three schooling organisations is described. The purpose of this micro level inquiry is to discern from actual practice of governance how community participants may impact on the quality of education in their institutions. In this way the fourth pair of hypotheses and research questions (see H4Q4, Table 1 on page 11) is addressed.

This first chapter of the fourth section establishes linkages between macro, meso, and micro levels of inquiry and explains further the methodologies previously outlined (Chapter 3) for this phase of the research. The chapter which follows (Chapter 11) presents evidence from the cases studied. In the last chapter of this section (Chapter 12), inferences are drawn from the three Case Studies of participatory governance on the efficacy of performance, the efficiency of procedures and the effectiveness of policies. This section therefore addresses the research hypothesis and question (H4Q4) as to how participants' attributes and administrative procedures may determine beneficial policy outcomes from school government, and what may constitute a productive performance by school governors.

Major factors in decentralised administration have been identified from the macro and meso levels of inquiry (see Table 4, page 140). These are now translated into key issues for the micro level inquiry. Elements in the patterns, processes and politics of the Case Records will be related to the performance, procedures, and policies of the Case Studies.

Linkages of devolutionary patterns, processes, and politics to governance performance, procedures, and policies

Patterns → Performance

During the macro and meso phases of inquiry into devolutionary patterns the major factors were identified as:

- tradition and local custom,
- rationale for reform,
- assurance of equity, and
- quality of education.

In the micro level inquiry, tradition and local custom will be interpreted in the institutional context as ethos. Cultural climate, values and objectives peculiar to each site will be identified under that heading. Just as there appeared to be a rationale in each location for reform, restructuring, or revitalisation, so, in each institution, it is expected that there will be administrative adaptations to be made to changing circumstances. Therefore changes are to be another key issue.

The social justice agenda of all the locations which share the British heritage has been deemed to be assurance of equity; this notwithstanding a stated recognition of the inherent "conflicts and accommodations" which Halsey (1986:2) acknowledges are to be found in all Western countries through the dichotomous commitment to both state welfare and a free market economy. Equity, in this instance, has been subsumed as equal opportunity for all students to achieve according to maximum of ability; it also includes commitment to gender equity and anti-discriminatory practices. However, arguments will not be entered into on the perennial debate as to the inequity of public and private systems of education. This concern is considered to be outside the focus of this study except inasmuch as the British Public School ethos is seen to persist in non-government systems of all the locations which have been observed. One of the case studies is undertaken in an independent school. Despite those strictures, equality will be a key issue.

Quality of education is seen as the objective of the whole service exercise. Once again, it is a phenomenon having unique and ubiquitous connotations. In a learning institution, it may best be interpreted as outputs related to inputs. Both are dependent on underlying philosophies and culture. The interrelationship between professionals and laity in a community, and the contribution each zone of influence makes to the total educational environment has been demonstrated as significant. What has to be discerned in the case studies is the quality of outcomes from schools which appropriate administration may be found to enhance.

Therefore, ethos, change, equality, and quality comprise four key issues to guide the participant observation schedule for seeking excellent performance of governance. Evidence will be sought as to how those issues are worked out in practice by each governing body.

Processes → Procedures

Likewise, during the macro and meso level inquiry, major factors in the processes involved in educational administration were identified. These have been given as:

- power distribution,
- timing,
- role distinction, and
- communication.

The distribution of power is interpreted in the micro phase of inquiry, as the level of empowerment at each site. Procedures are expected to reflect the formalised powers available to an institution's governing body. Assessment will be undertaken of accountability for discharge of specific functions based on the evidence gained from participant observation.

The critical element of timing is interpreted at the local level from several standpoints. The particular time frame in which investigation is conducted, the point in each institution's history in which the current collective of participants in governance is operating, the amount of time taken to perform the governance tasks, each appear to have significance. Therefore, time, with its variety of meanings, is another key issue in governance.

None of the procedures can operate without human agency. Policies are made by people. The distinctiveness of roles called for, or played, in the administrative process has been found to be a major factor in devolved decision making. The assumption of roles by the participants in governance is critical to effective functioning. The attitudes, motivations, experience, skills, and mental talents, of the particular personnel in the three samples will be subject to observation.

An essential procedure in school administration is the communication of knowledge and information. Personal interaction, in a social sense, for the purpose of interpersonal exchange of views, is part of this interchange. Political and cultural forces from the broader environment have an inevitable impact as authoritative or controlling influences. Effective administration depends on human interaction, both print and personal. Training for the role may be part of interaction. Acquisition of additional skills, in order for governance procedures to be effective and efficient, has been recorded as necessary in locations where extensive devolutionary practice is being put into operation, as in England or New Zealand. A skill training component is presently regarded as critical in many aspects of employment. The requisite skills for governance have been shown to be in a similar category.

Each of these key issues for participatory governance - empowerment, time, roles, and interaction - is explained in terms of particular school-site administrative procedures.

Politics → Policies

A political dimension, never far removed from either the patterns or the processes of educational administration, became evident from analysis of the data collected during the macro and meso level inquiry. Politics is present in administration through what Hodgkinson (1981:145) calls "the domain of power, resource control" and "the political process of persuasion". It was evident also in the presence of political figures whose profiles cast long shadows on reforms in several instances given in the Case Records. It may be expected to become apparent in the policies resulting from the collective deliberations of the participants in governance. Politics, as a persistent theme in educational administration, was evident in three emphases during the macro and meso inquiry:

- reform,
- revitalisation, and
- restructuring.

These imperatives are interpreted as changing dimensions in learning, teaching, and leadership in schools; in reflection on community aspirations for schooling; and in authoritative and controlling activities. As Tyler (1982:49) comments, "schools mirror characteristics of bureaucracy", so key political issues to be investigated at the micro level will be the policies eventuating from administration by participatory governance. The extent to which the policies are supportive, communicated, and responsive within the total environment of a learning institution will be ascertained during the micro inquiry. How decisions are made by the participants, and what documentation encapsulates their deliberations, is investigated during the participant observation phase of school governance.

The major factors and key issues pertinent to governance are given as matrices (Table 6) to guide the participant observation of the three cases.

Table 6. **Matrices for Participant Observation of Governance**

1. PERFORMANCE matrix

major factors (Case Records)	interpreted as	key issues (Case Studies)
Tradition, local custom	institutional tradition	Ethos
Rationale for reform	adaptation to change	Changes
Assurance of equity	equal opportunity	Equality
Quality of education	outputs related to inputs	Quality

2. PROCEDURES matrix

major factors (Case Records)	interpreted as	key issues (Case Studies)
Power distribution	responsibility allocated/discharged	Empowerment
Timing	chronologies; time-frames	Time
Role distinction	differential expertise	Roles
Communication	knowledge, information, views	Interaction

3. POLICIES matrix

major factors (Case Records)		interpreted as		key issues (Case Studies)
Reform	>	dimensions in learning, teaching	>	Support
Revitalisation	>	leadership; reflection of community aspirations;	>	Response
Restructuring	>	authorising, controlling	>	Communication

Methodological considerations

The relevance of the methodology is critical to these case studies of governance. It was explained in Chapter 3 that a basic method of qualitative research, participant observation, would be used. Before focussing on the individual sites, some general methodological details should be given for application to all three cases.

Participant observation

This was undertaken over a six-month period. An intensive phase of participant observation proceeded concurrently in each institution during on the last three months of the school year and the first three months of the next school year. The long vacation intervened, allowing space for reflection, concurrent analysis, and interviews to take place. There was ample opportunity for informal interaction between the researcher and those researched. Meetings of the three governing bodies, and activities related to those meetings, were recorded in lengthy field notes.

Interviews

All members of each governing body were interviewed, some less formally than others. In the post-participant observation phase of inquiry, further interviews were arranged with specific persons to corroborate evidence gained, to answer particular questions which had arisen from the analysis concurrent with data collection, and to clarify the proceedings in which the participant observer, and those observed, had been engaged. These interviews could be regarded as triangulation of the findings. There were multiple interviews with

some key personnel so as to verify or discuss conclusions. Some telephone interviews were occasioned, although most follow-up interviews were face to face.

The semi-structured interview experience gained during the macro and meso level of inquiry, proved useful at the micro level as a technique using the general, specific, and key question format (see Appendix 3.3.3) The availability and accessibility of informants at the micro level allowed for the probability of the 'grounding' or 'saturation' of data in a way which was not feasible at the macro or meso levels where there was only the possibility of one pass at settings.

Comparative measures

A few complementary devices were adopted as comparative measures across the sites. Some quasi-statistical data were obtained from the membership of each governing body; for example, a pro forma for estimation of time taken up by governance business (see Appendix 5) and another on rating perceptions of effective performance of governance (see Appendix 6) were devised. Account was kept of attendance at governance meetings.

Document analysis

This was an extensive and absorbing task before, during and after the period of participant observation. Relevant documents pertaining to each institution's history and culture, the meeting agendas and minutes of each governing body, and printed communications between each institution and its community, were considered to be of vital import to the concerns of this research.

The minutes of the business of governance have been a focus for analysis. The findings of Macbeth *et al.* (1980:9) from an analytical study of the minutes of meetings of school councils in Scotland, indicate that the items they categorised dealt mainly with matters at the interface between school and out of school agencies (57% of items) or with non-educational in-school items (29%). Further, Macbeth *et al.* (1977:28) found that only 8% of items discussed might be described as 'broadly educational'; a heading under which they include matters such as curriculum (less than 1%), extra curricular activities, discipline, interschool links, and career guidance. Most of the Scottish council's functions were seen by Macbeth *et al.* (1980:10) as advisory or communicating. They found few were policy making, and most were "peripheral to the education of children as a whole". Macbeth *et al.* (1980:138) suggested that "the processes of determining agendas can influence the course of meetings". They identified thirty seven categories of items which appeared in council minutes. They categorised these into nine 'bands': council procedures, home school issues, links with community, staffing, resources, educational, non-educational, and other issues. Both the usefulness and the difficulty of categorising items is admitted by Macbeth *et al.* (1980:144) although the predominant issue was usually seen clearly by those researchers. 70 % are given as 'simple' in this regard.

For the purposes of this present study of governance, similar use has been made of categorisation. The amount of time spent in meetings on particular items of business was noted. A simple five item matrix - procedure, finance, resources/planning, curriculum, and welfare - has been designed to classify items discussed during the meetings of the governing bodies. Obviously precise demarcation of items is not always possible. Sometimes elements of more than one category were implicated in any one item; some overlap of items did occur. Examples of this were evident in choosing whether 'award restructuring' should come under 'Welfare' or 'Finance', or whether planning for a new ceramics facility should be regarded as curricular (under 'Curriculum') or pertaining to 'Resources/Planning'. It was resolved that decisions about such items would take account of the amount of time devoted in each case to the dual aspects of the topic during the particular meeting. For instance, in the second example above, ten minutes was spent discussing the cost of the new facility, and five minutes on the curricular advantages which would accrue from its coming on stream and providing an additional subject for day and evening classes. Resolution such as that required the concentrated attention of the researcher, alertness to agenda items, accurate recording of their treatment during the discussion at the meeting, and clarification afterwards.

For the purposes of categorisation, definition of each of the five categories was held to be as follows.

Procedure:	the organisational details pertinent to the business of each governing body (agendas, minutes, correspondence, membership, meeting arrangements).
Finance:	matters dealing predominantly with the financial affairs of the institution (budgets, financial statements, fund raising).
Resources/Planning:	matters pertaining to buildings, grounds, maintenance, equipment, future development.
Curriculum:	issues concerned with curricular content.
Welfare:	matters related to the quality of care in all its aspects of students, staff, parents, members of governing body. This recognised the contention of Marland (1980:2) that in school life "there can be no pastoral/academic split" and that organisational efficiency "is useless unless it is humane and sensitive" (Marland, 1980:204).

The amount of time spent by participants in the business meetings on items in each category was expected to indicate the importance they attached to these concerns. Analysis of the data was expected to identify ways in which the categories of business, especially the consequent policies formulated, might contribute to educational quality in the particular institution. It was anticipated that contributions to the last three categories - resources and planning, curriculum and welfare - might be significant in this regard.

Relationship of researcher to the researched

In the event of participant observation, the relationship of the researcher to the researched is of particular import. It differs from the previous observer role in several respects about which the researcher needs to be aware if particular pitfalls of subjectivity, prejudice and bias are to be avoided. Although these problems obtained in the previous phases of inquiry, at this micro level there is the dilemma of emotional and philosophical involvement and the propensity to lose objectivity in the familiar setting. The researcher normally participates in a regular way in the proceedings. What was now required was a dual role, the pre-existing one with the relationships involved in that situation, while at the same time operating in the new participant observation mode. The aforementioned familiarity has a positive side in the possibility it offers for prevention of deliberate 'masking' by personnel of what is going on, as the researcher would be well aware of normal reactions within the group. Her familiar presence might also pre-empt modification of what is being studied for it might be expected this could not so easily be done when the researcher is recognised as a well known and perspicacious observer.

Past performance on the governing body by the researcher might be expected to have impact. A person who has been in the position and location by legitimation and regular attendance in the organisation being studied, especially over a fair period of time, may be expected to gain credibility for the research. The respect of that group for the researcher's competence should have some significance for authenticity of data. The researcher had served on each of the governing bodies for over two years in each case. Good relations had been enjoyed with the membership during the period, to the extent that the researcher had recently been nominated as deputy chairperson to two of the three governing bodies.

To counteract some of the above problems, vigilance as to personal motivations and actions was painstakingly noted in a diary of events, and in the form of audit memos during fieldwork (see Appendix 3.5.5) Incidentals recorded in such memos often attain greater importance in hindsight. Such accumulated information proved helpful, especially when elaborated upon by informants at interviews after the participant observation episode. Diary and memos were used to verify minor and finer datum during analysis.

Preparatory concerns

Choice of the key issues for the micro level inquiry was made before participant observation. The researcher had to be aware that, objective as this choice was, there might

still be an element of personal subjectivity attaching to it. The possibility of emergent negative evidence, and consequent need for alertness to discovery of new hypotheses, had to be allowed for, even during the testing of present hypotheses. However, the key issues which had been identified were confidently expected to provide appropriate bench marks for the case studies.

Ethical considerations are encountered in research. There could be no question of furtive voyeurism or deception, noted by Evans (188:208) as "being dishonest to get honest data". The 'gatekeepers', from whom the original permission for access had been obtained, had the opportunity to check the case studies and make changes as they saw fit.

To prevent information overload for the participant observer during meetings, a pro-forma was devised for the observation of the meetings by the fieldworker. Preparation consisted of listing each item from the previously circulated agenda, allocating time to the topic, with space for field-notes and attribution of comments (see Appendix 12). Subsequent analysis of this data, together with that from document analysis, interviews, formal and informal observations, and minor sampling, provided the bases for compilation of the case studies described in the next chapter.

Chapter 11

Micro level Inquiry: Case Studies of Governance

The administrative practice of three governing bodies in one locality is described under the headings - performance, procedures and policies - set out originally in the conceptual framework for this study. Following analysis of the findings from the macro and meso level inquiry, matrices (see Table 5, pages 180-1) were designed to guide the participant observation phase of the governance study. Consequently, performance is investigated as it relates to the key issues of ethos, changes, equality and quality; procedures as they relate to empowerment, time, roles, and interaction; and policies as they show evidence of support, response and communication in the particular learning institutions.

A focus for this research is on outcomes of quality, therefore a more detailed commentary on this key issue has been made in each case study. The contextual model of quality of education for this governance study (see Figure 9, page 161) depicts two complementary environments contributing to the total educational environment of a learning institution. The internal sector, which shapes the context for quality through instructional leadership by professionals, and the external sector in which a governing body brings into contention laypersons representing social, cultural and political forces of a community, are seen to contribute in appropriate ways. To be effective, it would appear to be essential for both sets of contributors, professionals and laypersons, to be aware of the actions and activities of the other. Consequently a governing body needs to have information on the school program upon which to formulate policy. In each Case Study, therefore, awareness of internal effectiveness factors, as delineated by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:5) - and illustrated in Figure 7 (page 158) - is taken into account as a criterion.

The potential of participatory governance to enhance outcomes of quality through policy making is to be discerned from these case studies. At the conclusion of each case study, there is a brief reflection on that governing body as evidenced during the six-month period of participant observation. Inferences from the data collected in all three cases are drawn in the chapter which follows (Chapter 12), and which concludes this section of the thesis.

Case Study 1.

Elizabeth College Council

PERFORMANCE

Ethos

Tasmania shares with the Australian Capital Territory the distinctive provision of senior secondary colleges for students in Years 11 and 12 in the government system; a precedent which Queensland, the Northern Territory, Victoria, and Western Australia have since followed. Elizabeth College was established as a matriculation college in 1967. It is situated in an inner city location on a site which has been used as a school since 1842 as practising school, primary school, 'modern' school, high school, matriculation college, and, as presently described, a community based college. It is perhaps known in the community through the media for its less than ideal working conditions. This is a fact acknowledged by Education Ministers, Rae (1988) and Patmore (*The Examiner*, 24 April 1990). Two other community colleges in Hobart are located on more extensive sites. Both have superb facilities. A fourth college for southern Tasmania, a purpose built 'Education Park', opened in 1990.

A new College logo, additional to the more traditional heraldic shield featuring rampant lion, holy crosses and open book, features in all current publications. It is a symbolic representation of the original Elizabeth Street Practising School building, which still stands at the centre of the College site. The agglomeration of rather ugly buildings which have been added on to the site, in mixed architectural styles, to accommodate increased numbers of physically larger students and to meet differing curriculum needs, somehow epitomises the chequered heritage and make-do-and-mend climate in which this college has had to develop. The facilities have posed problems for leadership, particularly in recent years, facing competition for student places from comparable learning institutions of more attractive appearance. The symbolism of the solid and central Victorian building is not lost as a permanent and stable fixture in an ever-changing landscape. This core facility may be outmoded, but it lends stability to an otherwise disjointed picture of educational provision. The College is located close to the central city business district. It is directly adjacent to major traffic arteries that run in front and behind the site.

As the College is under the aegis of the Department of Education and the Arts, the usual bureaucratic regulations apply to it. Constraints on teachers, as public servants, regarding freedom to comment on conditions have proved as irksome here as elsewhere. The

establishment of a Council in 1981, whose membership included lay community representatives, allowed for comment to be made from informed, but external, sources such as those members. This has proved useful in consciousness-raising about conditions at the college. Media attention to causes raised by Council spokespersons is evident in headlines, such as 'Students face big squeeze at Elizabeth College' (*The Mercury*, 7 March 1991) or 'Cuts hit student reports' (*The Mercury*, 28 May 1991). In the latter instance, the complaint of the Chairman of the College Council about "slashed numbers of teachers [who were] too busy meeting a heavy curriculum work load resulting from education funding cuts by the State Government", was reported.

The College has had stable professional leadership over the period of its present existence. The present Principal has been the incumbent for ten years. The staffing structure appears to have ensured 'leadership density' (Sergiovanni, 1987:122). The composition of staffing is regularly reported to the College Council. Teachers' devotion to the cause of providing adequately for the changing needs of students is readily apparent on reading the College's publications. In the course of the micro level inquiry, teacher interviewees expressed marked loyalty and commitment to this College. This was also apparent during Council meetings as teachers reported to that governing body. It was obvious, too, that the student representatives on Council shared an excellent rapport with their teachers.

The casual dress adopted by the students reflects the relaxed style of the staff garb. The Principal adopts a 'shirt and tie' style on most occasions. Some members of staff dress in a slightly less formal manner, but there is little air of formality about the place at all. First name terms are frequently in use between staff and students. Council members are treated without undue deference though, it should be added, most would be unrecognised by the majority of staff or students. Informal contacts during the inquiry period indicated a general lack of awareness on the part of staff or students about the function of the College Council.

The conditions under which education is provided in this institution might appear to militate against quality outcomes, were it not that an air of purposeful accomplishment does seem to permeate the somewhat debilitated surroundings. Comparisons might be made between the circumstances of this college and the secondary schools featured in the work of Rutter *et al.* (1979). The findings from those London schools pointed to factors other than physical size, age of buildings, or space available as predictors of quality outcomes for students. Significant factors were found to be the qualities of the schools as social institutions. As Rutter *et al.* ((1979:178) comment: "It was entirely possible for schools to obtain good outcomes in spite of initially rather unpromising and unprepossessing school premises, and within the context of somewhat differing administrative arrangements".

Bearing in mind that the hypothesis of this governance study is that governing bodies have the potential to influence quality of education in an institution, it has to be pointed out that the Rutter study finds that broad differences in administrative status or

organisation are not indicative of differences of outcomes for students. However, the contention of this governance study that educational quality has the potential to be influenced by formal community participation should also be borne in mind. Inputs to the total learning environment of an institution from external contributors, critical among which the governing body has been numbered, are hypothesised to have impact on outcomes of quality. It is admitted in the study of Rutter *et al.* (1979:146) that there were many external, or as they put it, "ecological factors of very great importance to the functioning of schools" which they "could not study". Despite their omission of formal community involvement as a feature of schools which could make good outcomes more likely, governing bodies may well be included in "the variety of external factors of schools" that Rutter *et al.* (1979:203) acknowledge in the comment "much of the effects of secondary schools were linked with their features as social organisations"'.

The characteristics which Rutter *et al.* (1979) do find to be associated with improved outcomes in a school varied as to the degree of academic emphasis in it, as well as the actions of teachers in its classrooms, the availability of incentives and rewards, and the extent to which students were able to take responsibility there. The implication of the work of Rutter *et al.* (1979:179) is that "individual actions or measures may combine to create a particular ethos, or set of values, attitudes and behaviours which will become the characteristic of the school as a whole". Such would appear to be the case at this senior secondary college. While an accent on academic purposes is still strong at Elizabeth College, there is now an emphasis on skill-based instruction relevant to the needs of the present students. This has changed the underlying ethos of this learning institution. As Rutter *et al.* (1979:203) explain, it is important to enquire how institutional 'climates' become established, and then are maintained or changed.

Changes

The designation of this college as 'Matriculation' was dropped in the early 80s so as to more accurately describe its changing educational function. The decision to do this is attributed to the Council at the time, in recognition of the diversity of learning needs of those enrolled. The college now offers, as the current promotional brochure states, a wide ranging program for students who want to go on to tertiary education and for those who want one or two years of post secondary education to enhance their employment opportunities.

In addition to a formal academic program, facilities at the College presently include a communication and design centre, an automotive workshop, and a language laboratory. Among other skill-training courses offered during the period under scrutiny were: Small Business Management, Creative Arts and Graphic Design, Expedition Skills and Tourism Studies. Computing has been a notably strong curriculum offering for several years. The provision of many of these enterprises has been made slowly, often tenuously and with difficulty, in the face of competition from other schools and colleges for the scarce

financial resources available for public education. The Council has been instrumental in lobbying for some initiatives in the past. The advent of self-management in the Tasmanian State system may necessitate increased activity in future.

Elizabeth College has a new gymnasium. It was opened in July 1990. Instigation of proposals for provision of this facility were attributed to the lobbying tactics at Parliament House of the Council Chairperson (Council Minutes 10/4/91). The *Newsletter* (August 1990) noted the College owed her "a very special debt". The new gym has stimulated a Talented Athletes program. A recent supportive feature for this initiative, as for some other programs, has been sponsorship by outside agencies. In this instance, sponsors are local basketball and football teams and a Real Estate agency.

Evening classes provide for adult students and those who wish to return to study to upgrade their qualifications. Adults may attend normal, day time-tabled classes, too. Costs for these classes are minimal. A levy of $45 dollars was charged in 1991 when fourteen different courses were offered. Provision of these classes is diminishing due to economic shrinkage. The Council has not yet been informed of any moves for sponsorship or increased fees which might address this current diminution of provision. Members of Council, however, were fully informed about, and inspected the facilities which existed for, evening classes during the inquiry phase.

Radical changes in the structure of educational administration occurred in Tasmanian educational administration during the period of this inquiry. Just prior to it, the Cresap Report (1990:52) recommended a system change to an organisational model comprising Eight K - 12 districts, each including a secondary college, eliminating regions, and with maximum devolution to schools and/or districts'. Cresap (1990:56) implied this:

> should significantly enhance the effectiveness of education. This concept focuses on the principal and senior staff as the key educational leaders of the school. Research and expert evidence supports the importance of leadership at the school level in improving student learning. It puts decisions about the use of resources closest to the student, It will foster ownership of the educational outcomes by the school, its staff and its community.

The Tasmanian Government endorsed the Cresap recommendations. The effects of implementation of them in the College were immediately conveyed to the College Council (Council Minutes 3/10/91). The Principal commented on the known implications for the College of the Cresap Report and subsequent State Budget: loss of forty classes or a drastic increase in teacher workloads, with industrial repercussions. At another Council meeting seven weeks later, a letter from the Principal to the Secretary of the Department of Education and the Arts was tabled. It expressed the reactions of the teaching staff to the situation at the College: refusal to cooperate with reduction to traditional educational services; insistence on retention of the traditional timetable of teaching subjects so as to allow time for tutorials and pastoral care, and "dismay and consternation at the hypocrisy

and lack of courage involved in the so-called devolution of power from head office to site when accompanied by threat of further staff reductions". Staff members on the Council sought support for this letter. However, by the time it was presented at that particular meeting, a quorum had been lost so a motion could not be put . The remaining two community members affirmed Cresap recommendations, expressing views that inevitably these would be implemented, and that they agreed with them.

So ended the College's year. By the time the Council reassembled, three months had elapsed, a new Council membership was imminent, and the self-management changes were in motion in the College. As the *College Newsletter* (March 1991) states "we have begun what appears to be a year of unprecedented changes, challenge and teacher stress". The Minutes of the first meeting of the Council (6/ 3/91) for the year record the Principal's report in which he gave the main problems as reduced hours per class, increased workloads for teachers, time-tabling of large classes, closure of classes due to size, refusal of Government to allocate more staff, and complaints from students and parents about class sizes, safety in laboratories, lack of space and furniture. Following this report, a resolution was carried by the members that an open letter, jointly signed by the Council Chairman and the president of the Parents' Association, was to be circulated informing parents about problems the College was facing. One obvious outcome of stringency measures was a lack of furniture evident to those present at this Council meeting. There were barely enough chairs to go round, and no tables as previously provided. The Principal explained that most of the room's furniture, sparse as it usually was, was required for the over large classes in the building.

At the start of the second phase of participant observation, concern was expressed to the Council about how the new District administration would improve educational outcomes at the College. Problems of increased teacher workloads, change and stress occasioned by the impending Tasmanian Certificate of Education (TCE) were reported by the Principal to Council. He told of the changes contingent on the TCE syllabuses and course development, and the reactions of staff, unions, and other College Principals, to developments in this connection (Council Minutes, 8/05/91). The need for Council support and response was apparent. The incoming membership, (only four members continued into the new year) under a new chairperson, faced the prospect of increased responsibility and time on task.

Some physical changes were occurring at the college concurrently with the programmatic ones. Despite Tasmania's economic downturn, building works commenced on the construction of a resource material centre. Council is represented on the College's Redevelopment Sub-committee. This group has been active in all the preliminary stages of planning this project. The project is currently the biggest capital works project in the State's Education Budget.

Equality

The College draws student enrolment from widespread areas and many different neighbourhoods. Students come from affluent, southern, bay-side suburbs and from northern Housing Department districts, from the rural Derwent Valley and from inner city high density living accommodation. Enrolment numbers peaked at 1,715 students in February 1990, making Elizabeth College the biggest college population in Tasmania at that time. Students from twenty-three different countries attended the College in 1990. Twenty-four overseas students (from nineteen different countries) and forty students from interstate enrolled in 1991. Staffing in 1991 included four teachers from France, Russia, China and Japan respectively. 1600 students enrolled in 1991, 1000 being full-time. Over one third of the total enrolment was over 18 years of age. Females comprised 53% and males 47% of the total.

The Principal of the College is male. There has never been a female principal of a Senior Secondary College in Tasmania. During the micro level inquiry phase, the chairperson of the Council was female. The proportion of teacher representatives is evenly divided between male and female. The new District Superintendent is male. The Minister of Education is, and in Tasmania always has been, male.

It is constitutionally required that the Council shall consist of sixteen members. It is required that at least half of the membership shall be neither staff nor students. The Principal is an *ex officio* member. The four staff representatives should include male and female members. Two students, one of each sex, represent the student body. A nominating sub-committee selects eight community representatives from those who have responded to a public invitation to join the Council (see Appendix 13). It is stipulated in the constitution of the Council that both sexes are to be represented in community membership.

Among priority areas reported to Council by the Principal (Council Minutes, 3/5/91) for the year in which the micro level inquiry was undertaken were included those concerned with equal opportunity. Other priority areas were Records of Achievement, Health, Criterion-based Assessment, and Pastoral Care. The curriculum of the College, accredited by the Schools Board of Tasmania, applied to students at different levels of competency. Changes in accreditation were conveyed to Council through a tabled Departmental Memorandum (13/6/90) referring to Records of Achievement and the concept of a College Graduation Certificate. Clearly this would be an issue which could benefit from community input as it pertains to the quality of student outcomes and perceptions of educational standards in the community. It is an example of "ownership of educational outcomes ... by its community", as advised by Cresap (1990:56). Yet there is no record in the Minutes of any further discussion on this issue.

Quality

Awareness on the part of governing bodies of the educational program for their particular institution has been given as a precursor to effective decision making. If governing bodies are to enhance quality by performing the role of policy making, it is plain that the membership must be informed appropriately on the matters pertaining to learning and teaching. Factors that may be used as criteria for quality have been those indicated by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:5) for effective student outcomes. How these have been communicated to Council can be discerned under the headings depicted in the Chrispeels & Pollack model (see Figure 7, page 158).

Safety and order

Temporary closure of a Teaching Block due to asbestos problems was reported to Council on two occasions in late 1990. Early in 1991, the vehicle parking problems of students were reported to Council by the student representatives, and a motion was passed (Council Minutes, 10/4/91) "That part of the oval be used for car parking for students while redevelopment is in progress". This motion later appeared to present more problems than it solved. Ownership of the oval, and associated environmental difficulties, had not been taken account of in the discussion which preceded the motion in Council. The student representatives also told Council of noise interruptions to classes, the loss of grassed areas for socialising (Council Minutes, 6/3/91), and the dangers of barbed wire fences (Council Minutes, 10/4/91) around the construction site causing injuries, especially to evening students. Clearly, during a period of major building development, the difficulties for the staff are a pressing concern about which the Council had to be aware. Thus far, Council acted with motions and resolutions of support in response to staff and student concerns in these matters.

High Expectations

The learning ethos of the College has already been described as one shaped by twin goals of academic learning and purposeful instruction. That the Council assumes this to be the case has to be taken for granted as there is no evidence of members' concern in this regard otherwise.

Recognition and reward

Evidence of these factors for Council members may be found in the *College Newsletter*. Half the contents of the March 1991 edition was devoted to listing the achievement of students. Details of the achievers' accomplishments ranged from Higher School Certificate results, University prizes to former students, successes in Music, Science talent, Youth Quests. On the front page of the November 1990 edition of the *Newsletter* an ex-student was

congratulated on becoming the Tasmanian Rhodes Scholar 1991; later in the piece, congratulations were also extended to other named students, staff and even a Council member, for recent accomplishments. These were in fields as diverse as sport, computing, languages, debating, and painting.

Home/school relations

The age of students in the College presupposes their virtual autonomy. One third of them are over 18 and thus legal adults. Even the two thirds who are 16-18 year olds might be regarded as old enough to take responsibility for their own educational progress (in 1991 only 39 students were in the youngest age group, fifteen year olds). Rutter *et al.* (1979) find giving students responsibility is a mark of effective schools. A College teacher, writing in the *College Newsletter* (May 1991) expresses the opinion:

> I can assure you that meeting the parents of my students often makes a difference to the perception I have of them and my attitude to them. If parents take time to see me and fill in some of a student's background, it often makes me feel more accountable for their child's progress.

As advice to parents, this teacher adds the rider "most students really do appreciate the interest you show in them even if they don't always admit it".

The difficulties under which the teachers perceived they were operating at the time of the inquiry were brought to the attention of parents of students in the State's Senior Colleges, not only through public newspaper articles and Letters to the Editor (Watson, *The Mercury,* 31 March 1991; Paternoster, *The Mercury* 6 March 1991) but, in the case of Elizabeth College, through editions of its *College Newsletter* (March and May 1991). The College has a Parents and Friends Association (P & F). In this it is unique as the only College in Tasmania to retain a parent group. The Association's President stressed in the *College Newsletter* (March 1991) that it is not a fund raising association in any way, but exists to support the Principal and staff. This purpose could be seen as duplication of the role of Council, and could dilute unnecessarily an apparently limited number of participants available from the College community. There are two representatives of the P & F on the Council.

Academic focus

It has been noted already that there is now a bi-focal emphasis at the College - academic and vocational - so as to meet students needs either for higher education accreditation or for skill instruction relevant to these post-industrial times. This dual emphasis may be difficult for the College community to comprehend, especially those who see schools and colleges as traditionally academically oriented.

Frequent monitoring

Although new systems of accreditation have been reported to Council, curriculum matters *per se* have not been pursued in any depth in Council meetings. The system in train for the new Tasmanian Certificate have infrequently occupied Council's attention. There is no reason to suspect that instructional leadership is not zealously pursuing educational matters, but questions have not been asked by Council membership to indicate awareness or interest in the progress of current evaluation mechanisms. Contemporaneous observation by the researcher at another College's Council meetings, found avid interest by its membership in all of these curricular developments.

Time on task

The College follows the Department's regulation term and vacation timetables. The fact that the Minister had banned "Student free" days' was reported by the Principal (Council (Minutes, 10/4/91). The difficulties of internal timetabling in the College in the post Cresap context were briefly reported upon (Council Minutes, 6/3/91). No action was taken by the College Council in these matters.

Similarly, the last three of Chrispeels & Pollack's specifics for effective student outcomes - Use of test results, Staff development, and Curriculum Alignment - are matters with which the Council has not dealt during the period in question. This may illustrate the limited role presently adopted by Council.

PROCEDURES

Empowerment

A commentary by the Principal on the Council's powers is recorded (Council Minutes, 3/10/90):

> the Council's Constitution in fact gave it enormous powers but it had never chosen to use them, largely due to the time constraints on most community and parent members but also lack of expertise (eg, in some areas of education but also in budgeting). He said that the Council's main role in recent years had been to offer advice to the Principal and staff on issues which arose from time to time (but it really did not control its own agenda) and to act as a lobbying agent with Government.

The Constitution (1982) was one of the first to be drawn up in the State in response to guidelines published by the State Council for Further Education (November 1980). Among objectives envisaged at that time for the Councils was that such bodies would endeavour to establish and maintain a strong community interest in the colleges. The Councils of at least two other colleges (Hobart College Council Constitution 3 (d), and Launceston Community

College Constitution 2.2) adopted this as an objective, but Elizabeth College Council added two further objectives for its Constitution:

> (a) to prepare and publish from time to time statements of educational and organisational principles, including a Mission Statement;
>
> (b) to act as an organ of communication with the Education Department and Government on behalf of the individuals and organisations who have responsibility or interest in the conduct of the College.

This would appear as a limited role for a Council. However, as indicated by the Principal's statement quoted above, the functions envisaged for it are wide ranging. They are summarised as follows:

- determine broad college policy
- approve educational program
- establish priorities in budget
- participate in staff selection
- advise on needs of plant and equipment
- determine policy on community use of facilities
- market and publicise policy development and program
- liaise with community and encourage participation

As the Principal remarked, the Council has not chosen to take full advantage of these powers. It would appear from analysis of data collected that Council's 'powers' have been exercised mainly in an advisory and lobbying capacity. It is doubtful whether, in the ten years preceding this participant observation inquiry, the Council has ever fully exercised its constitutional powers to approve programs, prioritise budgets, or help select staff. However, the onset of self management and realisation of the empowerment available in the present Constitution, could bring with it the expectation of a more participative performance in future. Lengthy discussion about changing the Constitution took place during three meetings of the Council. Amendments were made as a result of advice from Department officials, aware of the future role for councils foreshadowed in the Cresap Report. A motion was carried (Council Minutes, 28/11/90) to add the following to the functions of the Council:

> to assist in ensuring that the best post compulsory educational opportunities are made available to the students.

Time

A six-month phase of participant observation limits a long view of devolved practice in one institution, but the discrete span of time was expected to illustrate commonly occurring procedures in each institution.

It has already been stated that this period in the development of educational administration was a time of marked change. In Tasmania, restructuring of management

practices was proceeding at the State's own pace. There can be no doubt that this was a time of tension for teachers in this College. A letter of protest from them (Council Minutes, 28/11/90) demonstrated a perception that increased workloads would inevitably curtail time available for the personal tutorials and pastoral care on which the College prided itself. A supportive Council might be expected to ameliorate responsively such tensions. The physical reconstruction of the College site proved to be another source of stress, especially for students, as their representatives reported to Council.

The Principal's comments on "time constraints on most community and parent members" have been quoted. In the Case Records (Chapters 5 and 6), it was identified that donation of a considerable amount of voluntary time may be anticipated by local community members who participate formally in devolved decision making. A survey (see Appendix 5) of the actual time estimated to have been given by individual members to the work of College Council revealed that the only three members who responded to the survey calculated they had given an average of 18.3 hours of voluntary time over one year. It was disappointing that only 21% of the membership completed this survey but there were extenuating circumstances to account for the poor returns. Student members were not available due to examinations commitments. Perhaps the virtual non-compliance of staff members to a request for estimation of time could be taken as an indication of the low profile the Council occupies in the minds of teachers at the College. On the other hand, the request to account for hours devoted to Council business coincided with the unresponsiveness of those community members present to the protest letter of staff to the Education Department (November 1990) already described. In any event, estimation of the total number of hours spent by Council membership in one year appears to be lower than for the two other governing bodies which were surveyed at the time of the study. It is not known how much professional time the Principal devotes to Council business. He failed to respond to the survey as he was called away from the meeting. In the circumstances, the concerns of the Principal during this tumultuous period of change, could scarcely be expected to reflect strong attention to a Council; particularly one that functions in a limited advisory or lobbying capacity.

The Council is required by the Constitution to meet at least five times a year. The average number of meetings in a year is eight. During the six month period of participant observation, Council met on five occasions. Only four Council meetings are included in the study as the researcher was unavoidably absent for most of one of the five possible meetings. The average duration of a meeting was just under two hours. The percentage of total attendance of members at the meetings was 71 %.

The amount of discussion time devoted to the various categories of business during the formal meetings of Council which took place during the participant observation phase of this study, identifies the Council's deliberation in that particular time-frame (Table 7). More than half the time at meetings was spent on procedural matters. This might indicate

an unnecessary preoccupation with procedure to the exclusion of more relevant or wider concerns.

Table 6. Time on categories of items discussed at four Council meetings

CATEGORY	TIME	%
Procedure	4 hrs. 10 mins.	52.5%
Finance	30 mins.	6%
Resources/Planning	1 hr. 05 mins.	14%
Curriculum	1 hr. 20 mins.	17%
Welfare	50 mins.	10.5%
Number of hours =	7 hrs. 55 mins.	100%

However, in the context of current restructuring in education, endeavours to have good formal procedures in place on the governing body to meet the changes being brought about by self management, may be prudent. The 17% of total time devoted to curricular matters during the period of participant observation shows considerable improvement on the 8% given by Macbeth *et al.* (1977:28) as the percentage on "broadly educational" categories in Scottish Councils.

On two occasions during the research period there was time for refreshment before the Council meetings. On one occasion, a student catering group provided for this. Time for such social interaction proved useful in relaxing relationships among members who come from widely dispersed locations. They seldom meet other than at Council meetings.

Roles

The composition of Council membership is another Constitutional requirement. Membership changes annually with staff and student turnover. Half of the community representatives retire each year. Thus it can be seen that there is small probability of any long term commitment to the business of Council, or stability for policy making. In reality, regulations have tended to be honoured in the breach as some members have stayed for more than one year. The College Constitution (4.7) stipulates that members of the Council shall be appointed by the Minister who shall also appoint a chairperson on the advice of the Council. This has tended to be in abeyance for the past two years, so it was resolved (Council Minute 7 (e), 28/11/90) that "all incorrect references to the Minister and the Department be removed". This may not, however, settle the ambiguities in the formalities of assigning roles to the Council in future. The wider issue of a formalised and empowered role for councils is still to receive official directive for the State system as a whole.

Though the Principal, in an *ex officio* capacity, may be the one permanent member of the Council, a precedent has become established for chairpersons to over run the statutory term of office. There have been four chairpersons in the close to ten year existence of this Council. This crucial nature of this role was publicly acknowledged by the Principal at the official opening of the gymnasium.

In order to avoid any subjective commentary on the membership, it may suffice to detail the occupations of the members as at the beginning of the participant observation phase. These are listed in a site context format (Table 8). The two representatives from the parent association both regarded themselves as housewives, but both had heavy voluntary commitments to community organisations, one to Girl Guides, the other to the State Parent Council. The chairperson combined her work as a teacher aide with preoccupations as a political lobbyist. Her election to a municipal council prompted her retirement from College council. This occurred towards the latter part of this study. Her position was taken by a member of the Public Service with expertise in the Health Services area.

Table 7. Site context chart of Council members occupations

Occupations of Council Members	General	Number	Notes
Principal	M	1	*ex officio*
College staff	3M 1F	4	elected by College teachers
Students	1M 1F	2	elected by SRC
Housewives	2F	2	representing P & F (both parents)
Businesswoman	1F	1	former student of college
Political secretary	1F	1	present parent
Secondary teacher	1F	1	rural school (past parent)
University researcher	1F	1	local neighbourhood
Teacher aide	1F	1	political lobbyist (past parent)
Numbers	M=4 F=10	14	two places unfilled

Key: M = male F = female SRC = Student Representative Council

While other community colleges specify that their Bursars shall be *ex officio* members, this College does not make that requirement. This may, in part, account for the lack of concern for the College Budget in Council as evident in the 6% of total time devoted to Finance over four meetings (Table 7). It is interesting to note that the composition of membership in a northern college (Launceston Community College Constitution, 4.1) includes representatives of the ancillary staff, local government, Chamber of Commerce, Trades Hall, and the director of the local tertiary institution. Such a spread of occupations might ensure a diversity of viewpoints which may not be forthcoming from a membership as limited as that of Elizabeth College Council at present. Nonetheless, a range of age, and a span of experience in human affairs is represented on it. Individual members represent the

interests of country students, the local neighbourhood, parents, students and staff, and some are well informed of the local political scene. Most have present or former connections with the teaching profession. However, the opportunity obviously exists to supplement the membership with skills and views presently under-represented.

Although the comment of the Principal was recorded (Council Minutes, 28/11/90) that "Council needs to appoint a Minutes Secretary", nevertheless, he continued to fulfil this function himself into the following year. Council took no steps to relieve him of this time consuming chore. Council members have volunteered to assist in other capacities. The Principal gave an instance of just such a contribution from a retiring Council member who assisted regularly at student social occasions (Council Minutes, 10/4/91).

Interaction

Social occasions which involve the entire community of the College contribute to the culture of the institution. Many members of the Council were present (24 October 1990) at the launch by the Tasmanian Minister of Community Affairs of a book, *Youth and the Law* , produced by students at the College. The occasion, as was commented upon by the *College Newsletter* (November 1990), marked "a fine example of a cooperative venture involving students from a variety of disciplines". Members of the Council are regularly invited to functions at the College. During the period of this inquiry, invitations to craft, fashion and fabrics displays, and to a Poetry Evening, were extended. Such interactions are not only enjoyable in a collegial sense, extending as they do the awareness of members' attributes, but they form a useful cement with which to build foundations for a more imposing management edifice than has been constructed thus far by the College Council. In the future, Council could fill a more prominent position than it presently occupies in the external environment of this learning institution.

At the operational level of management, it has already been shown that effective administration depends on human interaction. Under the heading 'School Organizational Structure and Procedure' Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:5) give three specifics; shared decision making, collaborative problem solving, and channels for frequent communication. These are envisaged as operating within the ambit of instructional leadership inside a school. How these operate in the internal environment of the college is not the focus of this study, as that is on the potential influence of the contribution of participants in its administration. So, although awareness of these internal effectiveness factors on the part of the participants in a governing body is requisite, it can be extrapolated from the Contextual Model of Educational Quality (see Figure 9, Chapter 8) that such features should be mirrored in the general organisation, thus having implications for governance, too.

Shared decision making presupposes that decisions of import are required. The advisory or lobbying function of this Council in practice seldom called for major decisions to be made during the research period. Similarly, collaborative problem solving may be

possible but, as the Principal has indicated, time constraints and lack of expertise may have pre-empted deep or meaningful dialogue between the internal and external contributors to the total learning environment. It is apparent that potential exists for empowered decision making, and for closer collaboration. Channels of communication have been opened which could be greatly extended.

The Principal's remarks about a lack of expertise in some areas of education (Council Minutes, 3/10/90) indicate that additional skills are needed to make an effective council. There is nothing in the Department's *Discussion Paper on School Councils* (August 1990) to indicate awareness of this problem of appropriate skills, much less provision to train councillors to be proficient as members of Councils. It would appear essential that Councils in self-managing institutions are equipped with expertise and experience relevant to the task of site management. Failure of members to fulfil the purpose envisaged for participatory governance, even making an ineffective contribution, could prove to be dispiriting for those concerned. More importantly, the potential to influence student outcomes will have been lost.

During the inquiry period, one way of improving morale and engaging the community of the college in a focal activity was seen to be the production of a large scale musical production. A professional producer was employed. The College community was kept informed of progress through the *Newsletter*. The Council was addressed (Council Minutes, 28/11/90) by a staff member involved in the play who commented "Despite all the post-Cresap [Report] gloom, this musical would be a fascinating distraction and excellent PR for the College".

During the six month participant observation phase of this study, others who have addressed the College Council have been

- the architect of the new building,
- two Departmental officers on the *'Schools Council Discussion Paper'* ,
- an art teacher to inform on 'Art and Public Buildings Scheme',
- a Senior Teacher to explain Enterprise Studies and sponsorship,
- a teacher who recommended that the Council consider Incorporation under the Company's Act so as to have separate legal entity as other College Councils have done, and
- a teacher concerned with the problem of asbestos in some of the College buildings.

POLICIES

The policies of the Tasmanian Education Department have been the statutory governance regulations operating the College organisation. However, with the restructuring of administrative function towards a more self-managing model, it is probable that the way

will be open for college-site policies to be adopted in which the Council can participate. At present, here is no evidence of formal, written policies made by this Council.

Despite the sparsity of documentary evidence, there are examples in the Minutes of Council Meetings when support and response has been called for. Specific policy decisions can be identified in the Minutes of the relevant meetings during the period of participant observation. As meeting protocol is quite formal on this Council, decisions which are made may be gauged through the motions and resolutions passed during the period under scrutiny. The following list summarises those decisions:

1) motion to send information to parents on safety measures with regard to asbestos problems
2) motion to invite Education Department head to discuss Council powers
3) resolve to express appreciation to College architect for his work
4) review and amend Council Constitution
5) resolve to endorse open letter to be sent to homes outlining problems resulting from Government cutbacks in educational provision
6) advertise for new members to Council
7) motion to request Education Department to review capital works project priorities
8) motion that part of the Oval be used for student car parking
9) motion regarding 'ownership' of the Oval vis a vis the City Council
10) resolve that letter of protest be written to the newspapers on class sizes this year
11) resolve to support staff and student choice of site development priorities
12) agreed to pursue possibility of creche provision art the College for mature age students' children

Documentary evidence of effective communication is not difficult to find. The *College Newsletter* is a continual source of information. The College Handbook, and the informative leaflets distributed regularly to Council members about Courses within the College keep members up to date with the available programs. The Council has been supplied with relevant discussion papers issued by the Department.

During the period of the participant observation the attention of the newspaper medium has already been mentioned, television has been utilised by the student body for protest purposes, as has personal communication with politicians by members of Council.

The publishing facilities of the College are utilised for many of these communicative purposes. Clerical assistants in the College office produce the formal minutes and agendas for the Council meetings, and the small amount of outward correspondence from the College Council. The considerable communication skills of the Principal are exercised to the advantage of the Council business.

Reflections on Case Study 1

The case study of Elizabeth College has been based on participant observation of the College Council during a six-month period. The view of the College operations is taken

from the standpoint of a member of that Council. The key issues which had been identified in the performance, procedures and policies of this Council have been illustrated. As a means of summarising them, an event listing for the period under scrutiny is given (Table 9) to which is attached the corresponding actions of the Council. Some indication is also given of the area most affected by the event, using the categorisation procedure, finance, resources/planning, education, and pastoral care which demarcated the predominant issues evident during business meetings of Council during the participant observation phase.

Table 8. Event Listing during period of participant observation of Council (October-April)

TIME		EVENT (n=12)	COUNCIL ACTION	CATEGORY OF ISSUE
Oct.	1.	EPAU document on certification	Document tabled	Curriculum
	2.	Site re-development	2 councillors at parliamentary hearing	Resources/planning
	3.	Post-Cresap/State budget implications	Information received	Finance
	4.	Asbestos health risk	Motion passed	Welfare
	5.	Council Constitution to inform	Invite Dept. official	Procedure
Nov.	6.	Forthcoming musical	Informed by staff	Curriculum
	7.	Staff letter to Dept.	No quorum, no support	Welfare
Mar.	8.	Problems of increased workloads, large classes	Open Letter from Chair	Curriculum
	9.	Safety concerns: parking, over-crowding	Student report discussed	Welfare
	10.	Council membership	Discussion, advertise	Procedure
Apr.	11.	Capital works	Architect report	Resources/planning
	12.	Construction safety	Motion passed	Welfare

Of the twelve events listed, those related to education and welfare predominate. However, on further analysis, the emphasis on education and welfare demonstrates a reactive rather than a proactive stance on the part of the Council. Few, if any, initiatives were taken by Council in these matters. Procedural matters and resource/planning issues occupied Council to a greater degree than finance. Apart from the connotations which State capital spending has for the construction work being undertaken at the College, budget or financial statements were not concerns of Council.

Major problems facing the College continue to dominate Council business. A quality which has been required consistently at Elizabeth College appears to be tenacity. At the opening of the gymnasium, the Principal thanked "all those many people who have struggled for better conditions" at the College. The persons he mentioned especially were a broad spectrum of the community: the Parents' Executive, the local Residents Group, some former students and staff members, recent sponsors for projects, and the local member of Parliament.

Clearly, calls from the Council for political action to remedy perceived deficiencies have been strong and have had some positive outcomes. Otherwise, the Council would seem to have filled a role as a supporter on the sidelines, rather in the manner of the definition given by Beare (1987:8) for "involvement". Little approaching his definition of "participation" is evident from the performance of this Council, but the procedures appear to be in place, with appropriate modifications, to forecast the possibility of an effective role in policy making in the future.

Case Study 2.

The Friends School Board of Governors

PERFORMANCE

Ethos

In seeking to determine the ethos of this school, two elements have to be considered as essentially different from the learning institutions in the public system. The first is that Friends School offers a type of education which has a religious base but which is non-sectarian. The second is that the school belongs in the non-government system. Both these elements permeate the education programs and the way the school is administered. Both are explained in perhaps more detail than the other two case studies. In a way, this epitomises the postulation of Hodgkinson (1983:2) that administration is philosophy in action. In this case study, schooling is ideology in action as well. The case study is expected to explicate 'the privatization syndrome' to which Beare (1991:21) refers as being applied to public systems in devolutionary times.

Friends' School is Australian-owned by the Society of Friends (Quakers). This religious group came into existence in seventeenth century England as an assertion of the principle that no man can determine the religion of another. Education has been a concern for Quakers since the time of its foundation by George Fox. He advocated the founding of schools for teaching boys and instructing girls in "whatsoever things are civil and useful in creation" (Oats, 1979:67). Quaker writers (Loukes, 1958; Oats, 1979; Rutter, 1983) have illustrated the peculiarities implicit in the provision of Quaker education. For instance, Rutter (1983;78) defines the link he sees between religion and education in these terms:

> Our rejection of a religious creed is a rejection of false certainty and of dissociation between beliefs and practice: it carries no implications whatsoever that children (or adults) should be prevented from learning about credal beliefs. To the contrary, the emphasis is on the need for knowledge, from an informed seeking after truth, and for freedom of personal choice based on unfettered opportunities to learn from others as well as from individual experience.

Experience of Quaker schools, which had been operating in England for more than two hundred years, was utilised by early Australian Friends in founding a school in Hobart in January 1887. Oats (1979:65) observes that "Two epithets, 'useful' and 'guarded' were employed frequently by Friends to describe what they considered to be the purpose of education". Oats quotes the original advertisement for the school which promoted the object of the institution as offering "a guarded Christian education" for boys and girls. Although neither free nor secular, the non-doctrinal Quaker education appealed to the citizens of Hobart, both from the Quaker and non-Quaker families. The religious education offered by Friends has found a responsive clientele in the Tasmanian community to the present day when just under one thousand students, ranging in age from three to eighteen years, attend the School.

Hogg (1986:288) justifies schooling with a spiritual dimension: "Schools exist not only in a material world but also in a moral and spiritual world ... But this morality and spirituality are not necessarily religious, although religion provides for them an authority, and confers upon them a transcendental dimension".

As an independent school, Friends School is ostensibly a self-governing learning institution. However, along with most other such institutions in Australia, it receives financial aid from both Federal and State governments. Without this funding it would be unlikely to remain viable in present economic times. Since 1980, when the High Court decision upheld the constitutional right of the Commonwealth Government to give financial aid to church schools, continuation of government funding constitutes a degree of external control. Perennial subscription to the external curriculum prescriptions of the Schools Board of Tasmania for accreditation purposes is another outside agency which impacts on the School. So it is not strictly accurate to ascribe 'autonomy' or even 'independence' to non-government schools. Neither is 'private' an apt description; Friends School is a non-profit making enterprise incorporated as a public company. As Hansen (1972:9) explains, 'To offer a generally acceptable comprehensive definition of an independent school is impossible'. Such schools belong in a system seen by Maslen (1982:14) as "a more diverse group than those in any of Australia's government school systems, even though the majority are little different in organizational respects from their state school counterparts". In Maslen's (1982:30) view it is only since 1977 that "non-government schools have begun to compete seriously for their clients with government schools". That 'competition' has reached proportions which range from one-fifth to one-third of enrolments of students in respective States (see Appendix 10) being in non-government schools in Australia.

Chapman (1984:29) gives reasons for the continued existence of non-government schools:

> Choice, consent and contract are the guiding principles in independent schools. A belief that parents are the rightful decision makers about the education of their children and that they have the right to choose a school where the values, attitudes and standards are consistent with what they wish for their children provides the fundamental rationale for the existence of independent schools in Australia.

Hansen (1972) identified 'independent' for the purposes of his study of six prestigious schools in Victoria, as those who are members of the Headmasters' Conference of the Independent Schools of Australia. That organisation has since melded with the Headmistresses Association to form the Association of Heads of Independent Schools of Australia (AHISA). In his history of the Headmasters' Conference, Hogg (1986:75), finds:

> A powerful justification for the existence of Independent Schools is that they form an alternative to those run by governments. The important point is not that they are or are not better schools although we would wish them to be emphatically good schools but that they provide for parents, in a matter of great importance to a democracy, a choice. Indeed, in a sense, a two-way choice, for Independent Schools are not merely different from the systems of government education they are also profoundly different from each other.

Presently, Friends' School is associated with other independent schools through organisations such as AHISA, the Association of Independent Schools of Tasmania, the National Council of Independent Schools of Australia and the International Schools Association. The National Council, in particular, serves as a forum not only for educational leaders but also for lay leaders of school governing bodies, to share their experiences, as Pizzey (1990:93) pointed out in his Keynote Address to the 1990 Biennial Conference of the National Council of Independent Schools of Australia. In his opinion, independent schools' "success or failure depends on the professional expertise of their Council or Board".

Governing bodies in Independent Schools

Although not in sympathy with this system, which he finds little different organisationally from government schools, Maslen (1982:9) acknowledges:

> 'Independent' schools are part of my class of private schools but they differ from Catholic, Seventh-day Adventist and Lutheran systemic schools in having school councils with the right to appoint their own principals or headmasters who then have the power to appoint their own staff.

It is the view of Hansen (1971:93) that 'the single body responsible for the efficient functioning of a school is its council'. Hogg (1986:172) comments on "the intricate relationship between Headmaster and council". He warns of "the problems that might arise between a headmaster and his council" (Hogg, 1986:31). He refers to a document devised by the Headmasters' Conference on *The Relationship Between Governing Bodies of Schools and Headmasters* (see Appendix 15) which was "prepared in the light of past

advice. . . upon some aspects of their mutual relationship"(Hogg, 1986:290). However, good relationships appear to characterise such interactions at Friends'. Oats (1986:184) recalls that there was no major disagreement or misunderstanding between himself and The Friends School Board in his twenty-nine year working association with that body. This harmonious state appears to continue. The incumbent Board appointees to the Principalship, Dr Oats' daughter and son-in-law as Co-Principals, told the researcher "We are continually thankful for the support given us at all times by the Board".

A Friends' School culture

Beare *et al.* (1989:173) find that the underlying philosophy and the value-sets of leaders and others in an institution contribute to the building of its unique culture.

> For a strong and coordinated culture there needs to be the intangible, foundational elements and the tangible, outward expressions and symbols, between the espoused values, philosophy and ideology on the one hand, an d the actual manifestations and practices on the other.

Some of the ideology of The Friends' School has been described in the foregoing, some of the symbolic elements verbalised, visual, and behavioural expressions will be illustrated now. Oats (1968) uses "the spirit of the family" as metaphor to encapsulate the school. Given (1988:63) gives "the school as orchestra" to metaphorically illuminate the essential contribution of each individual player to an harmonious outcome of endeavour. The roles of leading players, and the vision and values of the conductor, are seen to combine, producing a quality performance in which all may participate. An extension to this metaphorical notion is the contribution to managing the orchestra. Without the care and attention of administrators, the players would be unlikely to accomplish orchestration of the highest order. A school council, in this case The Board of Governors, can be seen to carry out this critical external administrative role.

Verbalised expression of Friends' culture can be seen not only in its published aims and objectives and in terms of metaphor, but also in the academic emphasis and pastoral care observable within the school and clearly articulated in all archival and promotional material.

The heroes of the School's past Clemes, Morris, Oats, Hodgkin, Wells have buildings named after them. Traditional Honour Boards record the names of outstanding students; long-serving staff are celebrated on one board. The history of the School has been well documented by Oats (1979, 1986, 1987). Information is continuously updated in the annual magazine *Echoes*, the quarterly newspaper *Focus*, and the weekly news sheet *What's On.*

Visual expression of the school's culture, as presented by the appearance of the buildings would indicate a mixed offering, from plain functional red brick or concrete block to dilapidated cream stucco edifices. On his visit to the main school building, Maslen

(1982:227) observed "an air of almost genteel poverty ... this is not the most well-to-do school I have seen". The School is located on two campuses separated by a suburban residential block and a main city traffic artery. One campus is mainly comprised of modern, purpose-built school facilities. The other centres around the original property, constructed before 1834, close to and overlooking the centre of the city of Hobart. The School moved here in 1889. At that time, the School Committee was assisted in purchasing this site with a loan from the local Baptist community, indicating the esteem in which the School was held.

The equipment provided for the students and staff is in keeping with particular curricular focus of the School. Facilities for teaching science appear to be excellent. Oats (1979:69) records a traditional Quaker suspicion of the classics' at the time of the first Headmaster, Samuel Clemes, who "put the study of science much higher on the scale of priorities" and laid "more emphasis on physical training for both boys and girls ... than on competitive games". These features mark some of the differences between Quaker schools and more traditional British Public Schools. Friends' approval of leisure-time education was recently demonstrated by Board plans to upgrade, as a priority, the art, ceramics, home economics and computing facilities. The establishment of a Development Office for fund and friend-raising is another recent initiative of the Board with the objective of both funding new building stock and regenerating 'family spirit' in the alumni.

School uniform, a crest, Latin motto, school song, and flag are traditional British Public school features visible at Friends today. The school badge is a reminder of its heritage. It depicts a central torch of learning, flanked by an English red rose and a Tasmanian waratah set on a background of simple Quaker grey, a shield of faith and a Christian cross.

Behavioural expression of Friends School culture is notable for the differences from general independent school practice. A Quaker testimony to simplicity is borne out in the somewhat low-key observance of rituals and ceremonies. Speech Nights have given way to End-Year Gatherings without orations and prizes. Assemblies tend to be celebrations of individual or communal success - school trips, fund-raising, community service. No longer, for this school, the academically-gowned headmaster and staff on raised platform adjacent to lectern for exhortation purposes, nor the compulsory hymn singing by serried rows of suitably subordinated students.

In many activities the Quaker technique of quietude and periods of silence is used effectively to centre attention and calm the mind, though no effort is made to indoctrinate non-Friends by compulsory attendance at Meetings for Worship. The teaching and learning style of the school is characterised by a mutual searching after truth by student and teacher. An example of this is the individualised timetable of each student in the secondary section. Personal aptitudes and abilities are catered for by selection of courses

most suited to an individual student's need. This system has been developed at Friends in the past five years. It is one of several changes of which the Board has been apprised.

Changes

Founded in Hobart over 100 years ago by Quakers on the premises of co-education, peaceful resolution of conflict, the importance of the individual, and equality of men and women, its clientele was drawn from membership of the Society of Friends in Australia when boarding facilities were offered for students. Presently a day school, the clients are drawn from the local community and are largely non-Quakers. A small nucleus of Quaker staff and clients has an influence out of proportion to their numbers. Leadership of the School has always been given by Quaker Principals or Headmasters, thus bearing out the contention of Greenfield (1986:164) that "the leader is more frequently the instrument who determines what the group values are". The Presiding Member of the Board, and until recently of the Executive Committee, has always been in Quaker membership, as have the majority of Board members. All of that is unchanged. But there have been developments in governance, in curriculum, and in facilities which should be described.

At the School's foundation, Oats (1979:61) records that the first School Committee was appointed "to assist the teachers in the establishment of the school and to be entrusted with its general management and oversight". In his description of the first administrators, Oats (1979:62) quotes the view of one of its members who saw them "as a choice lot of tradesmen and an old farmer". After troubled financial and management times in 1903, London Yearly Meeting of the Society of Friends took control out of the exclusive hands of Hobart Quakers and agreed to appoint a Board of Management which would include members from other Australian Meetings. The English responsibility ended in 1923 after four decades of close co-operation, when control was handed over to Australian Friends in whom the ownership of the School is still vested.

Board members resident in Hobart constitute the Executive Committee of the Board. It meets once a month throughout the year. Full membership of the Board includes Quaker nominees from Queensland, Canberra, Perth, Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney. It meets only twice a year to overview administrative affairs. On at least one of those occasions the meetings take place at the School. This necessitates governors' interstate travel which, although costly for the School, is not the arduous exercise it must have been for William Cooper, the first Chairman. Oats (1979:26) records that Cooper "made the long journey from Sydney to Hobart to preside at Board meetings and at Speech Night" during his long term as Chairman. At ninety years of age he still flew to Hobart from Sydney, according to Oats (1986:184), to preside at Speech Nights. The fifty-year membership on the Board of his son, W.L. Cooper is also noted by Oats (1979:230). This underscores the metaphorical 'family' atmosphere of this school, one which Oats (1968) emphasised particularly. Longevity and long-service have been hallmarks at Friends, Eric Morris taught there for

fifty years before his retirement in 1975, William Oats served as Headmaster for twenty-nine years.

The participant observation phase of this study concentrated on the deliberations of the Executive Committee of the Board. Five members of the full Board did have a brief, routine meeting in Perth, Western Australia during the mid-point of the study but the researcher was unable to be present. A full Board meeting took place at the School towards the conclusion of the participant observation period. Henceforward, reference to 'The Board' can be taken to mean the deliberations of the Executive Committee, unless some item specifically refers to the governing body meeting as a whole. Meetings of the three sub-committees of the Board were not covered by the participant observer for the reason that these committees report back regularly to the Board.

A new era in the School's development began in 1989 with the arrival of new Co-Principals, appointees of the Board. By March of that year, the Board determined to develop a strategic plan for the School (Minute 7, 22/3/89). This set in train a major exercise, spearheaded by an educational consultant from Melbourne. He delivered a financial and institutional analysis to the Board on 16 June 1989. Dissemination of this Report led into an intense phase of strategic planning. The Board agreed (Minute 5, 19/4/89) that "it is desirable to involve all members of staff in the process". Subsequently, staff were joined by members of the wider school community, parents, grandparents, old scholars, former teachers. Guided by a Board member with expertise in such processes, the aspirations of these stakeholders and key areas upon which the future success of the school as a viable educational institution depends, were identified. The Strategic Plan 1991-6 was presented to the full Board. Three special Executive Committee meetings were held (27 September, 11 October and 4 November) so that by the end of the school year (December 1989) an attractive six page document was ready for distribution to the School community. It indicated the Board's stance as: "The Board is committed to working with staff, parents, and the whole School community in order to encourage the fullest possible development of every student, and so maintain the reputation of Friends' as an outstanding co-educational school". The following statement of 'Purpose and Concerns' was included in this publication:

> Friends' is a co-educational Quaker School based on fundamental values such as the intrinsic worth of each person, the recognition of "that of God" in everyone, the desirability of simplicity, and the need to establish peace and justice. We are concerned for the academic, cultural, physical, social and spiritual development of each person in our care. We seek to help our students grow into men and women able to think clearly and make decisions for themselves but sensitive to the needs of others, strong in service to the community and with an international perspective. We believe that these aims can best be achieved with the active support of all members of our School community.

The intent of this mission statement has guided the deliberations of the School since that time. The wording was re-examined at an open session of the full Board Meeting in May 1991, and still found to be appropriate.

Equality

Hansen (1971:287) remarked about schools in the independent system "The schools are exclusive in a social sense" but, he adds: "the leaders of these schools find themselves uneasy between elitism and egalitarianism and tend therefore to be sensitive to public opinion: they are anxious lest their motives be misconstrued, yet they resist pressures to conformity".

Over the years there have been severe critics of non-government schools. McLaren (1968) is quoted by Hansen (1971:11) as labelling them "a series of communities for status seekers"'. In the context of Friends' School, Maslen (1982:236) notes that the two principals he interviewed disputed his suggestion "that the school typifies the oligarchic society in which its students will take their place as members of the ruling class".

Such criticism presents particular difficulties for Quaker educators. Application of Quaker principles to political and social organisation has been demonstrated over three hundred years of the Society of Friends' history through deep concern for the nature of society, for equality and egalitarianism. Yet Quakers face a dilemma in the odd turn of history eventuating from meeting eighteenth century needs for education of children "whose parents were not in affluence" (Hubbard, 1974:45), to the network of over ninety prestigious Quaker educational institutions in Britain and the United States (three Quaker schools were observed during macro level inquiry for this study). As Loukes (1958:97) states:

> Friends are committed in principle to an attack on privilege and social distinction, but find themselves possessed of schools within a privileged and class-conscious system. Schools which started out among the humblest and most austere available are now among the most exclusive and expensive. They began as expressions of equality, and find themselves among the bastions of inequality, preaching the worth of every human being, and helpless to deny the solid worth of a public-school education.

The Friends' School Hobart is the only Quaker school in the southern hemisphere. For that reason alone, its clients can justify availing themselves of its specialised provision. However, as Loukes goes on to explain, rationalisation for the continued existence of Quaker schools is made by parents who use the services of such schools rather than keeping their children within the government system available to all. Those parents are expecting Quaker schools to further the ends of the Society of Friends, which the publicly maintained system is not in a position to meet. It calls for the continued vigilance of administrators of Quaker schools to ensure these religious ends are pursued. Not only administrators, for the non-hierarchical structure of Quakerism carries through the ordering of a Friends' school, as Loukes (1958:105) describes:

> The familiar hierarchy of school life, headmaster, staff, prefects, is found at work, but the hierarchy is not built up by artificial prestige. It is assumed as a necessary piece of mechanism, but the lines of communication are kept open throughout, so that ideas and action can spring up from below, as well as pass down from above. To this end staff meetings are frequent and long and discursive; not occasions for a headmaster to announce his policy, but efforts to reach a common understanding and purpose.

Despite the slightly old-fashioned, sexist language used by Loukes, the picture he conjures up of Quaker schools demonstrating the possibility of living in a community is one reason which could justify, in Loukes (1958:109) own words, the continuation of the Society "with much heart-searching, through the shifts of social climate, to keep its schools alive".

Shifts in social climate have come slowly to schools which inherit the British Public School ethos. Even schools for girls may still have male heads and male chairpersons on their governing bodies (Zainu'ddin, 1982). In this system, some female principals have encountered particular difficulties with their governing bodies, as Archdale (1972) and Montgomery (1988) have testified. Yet, some headmasters (Darling, 1978; Oats, 1986), recount harmonious relationships with their Boards. Oats (1986:183) recalls:

> I count myself particularly fortunate in having had a Board which worked with me rather than above me or without me. I was present at Board meetings not on sufferance as an employee but in my own right as a member of the Board. From the outset it was clear to me that the Board was there to support me, not to tell me what to do.

The present Co-Principals at Friends' are *ex officio* members of the Board. Another *ex officio* member is the Presiding Clerk of the Yearly Meeting of the Society in Australia. This position is equivalent in religious organisations to being 'head of church'; during the micro level inquiry phase, it was held by a woman. She formerly served on the staff of the School as a librarian.

Despite subscription to the equality of women, there are no School buildings or facilities named for women. There appear to be few, if any, 'heroines' in the School's story. An unusual feature of the School is the shared leadership at various levels, starting with the headship. Maslen (1982:227) comments that the school is the only one he knows which employs a husband and wife team as joint principals. The pair whom he interviewed was appointed by the Board in 1980, they resigned in 1988 and were replaced by another married couple, the present incumbents. However, these appointments are as close as the Board has come to appointing a female as head. No woman has occupied the position in her own exclusive right. Neither, in the School's history, has a female been chairman of the Board. Shared leadership in the Junior School (a male and a female) and four joint heads in the High School (three females and a male) contribute to 'density of leadership' (Sergiovanni, 1987:122).

Commendable egalitarian practices are evident with regard to socio-economic issues facing the Board. The consultant's report in mid-1989 identified diversion of 19% of fee income in forms of discount, about 12% of which he assessed to be related to 'some degree of hardship'. He commented in his report "I am aware of one other school in Australia which has such a high proportion of discounted fees". In his experience a typical independent school allocates around 5% of fee income to discounts. This he considered 'moderately generous', adding that '10% is very unusual'. He suggested the Board reconsider its 19% allocation. This subsequently occurred and a policy was adopted during the period of the participant observation study. (Minute G23/91). Bursaries, assistance with fees, concessions and discounts formed part of the business of every meeting during the study period, as is evident in the Minutes (E141/90, E147/90, E155/90, E23/91, E27/91, E32/91).

The School motto *Nemo Sibi Nascitur* roughly translates as 'no man is an island'. Social responsibility is a strong feature of the School's egalitarian ethos. Not for this School the character-building-for-leadership stance of more traditional Independent Schools. However, the way Quaker sentiments transform into action is open to query, as Maslen (1982:236) does, in questioning what he calls 'the politics of privilege'. His opinion, after investigating the School, was "I saw few signs and heard nothing from teachers to suggest the school was actively preparing its students to seek a more equal or more democratic community".

Quality

Quality of education was one of the ten 'key result areas' identified by the Board-initiated Strategic Planning exercise in 1989-90 as vital if the School is to be effective and successful. Quality was defined as "The provision of appropriate means for attaining self-reliant learning and discovery skills for the personal development of each individual". This definition appeared to some who attended follow-up workshops at the School (10-11 March 1990) as inadequate, a mere start to articulating quality goals for the School. The notorious difficulty of defining 'educational quality' became apparent. The outcome of the workshop sessions was a definition of quality as "effectiveness of the School in meeting the overall objectives of the total educational community environment". To attain this quality in the School, key issues were seen as 'learning, teaching, relationships, resources, evaluation of a worthwhile curriculum and assessment of achievement'. Each of these issues is subsumed in the Chrispeels and Pollack model (Figure 7, page 158) showing the relationship of school-wide effectiveness factors, school leadership and student outcomes. In terms of the contextual model of quality (Figure 9, page 161) for this governance study, these factors are seen as pertaining to the internal environment. The Board's contribution can be discerned in the above definition, and in the contextual model, as external, but integrated, in the total educational environment. How the Board may enhance quality

through its policy making is seen to be conditional on awareness of internal effectiveness factors as detailed by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990).

Safety and order

Responsibility for every aspect of this factor in a self-managing school is one of absolute accountability; there is no central bureaucracy, as in public systems, upon which to fall back. The maintenance of ancient and dilapidated buildings has been a major concern for the Board of Friends. The need to upgrade and renovate became a key area in the Strategic Planning exercise. During the participant observation phase of this study, two sub-committees were set up, Finance and Building and Grounds, and a Development Office established. Almost all Board meeting time spent on 'Resources and Planning', and a considerable proportion of the financial business, was occupied with matters of ordering the school premises in the most safe and convenient way for quality education to proceed therein.

High Expectations

The century-long existence of the School testifies to fulfilment of high expectations. The recently issued documents on the results of the Strategic Planning identified the aspirations of all the School's stakeholders. Students hoped for a "happy, stimulating, fair and caring environment". Families wished for "Excellence in fulfilling each child's all round potential". Staff wanted a "satisfying, creative, stimulating and secure job". Old Scholars hoped the School "would promote and build on its traditional values and standing". Community members foreshadowed "Academically, socially, and emotionally well-adapted citizens and employees". The expectations of the Board were expressed as "Wide exposure to Quaker values ... stable, professional and committed leadership".

The Board, together with the rest of the school community, is kept well-informed about how those expectations are being met by the proliferation of publications already mentioned. Emphasis on achievement in a variety of fields of endeavour is significant. It can be illustrated by the almost equal amount of space given in an edition of the quarterly newspaper, *Focus* (May 1991) to the student who received one of the 500 Inaugural Australian Students Prizes from the Prime Minister and, on the opposite page, the six year-old student's award for participating in the Day of the Derwent clean up. Parents, on the other hand, may wish to see academic results given more prominence.

Recognition and reward

Celebration of success in the multifarious activities of the School is a prominent feature, again with an accent on sensitivity to a variety of abilities, not just singling out the intellectual gifted. The annual magazine attempts to encapsulate the achievements across the age levels. Success in national competitions science, chemistry, maths, writing, public

speaking, debating, sport are listed in *Echoes* 1990. Recognition of the achievement of the Board is also given in that edition in terms of its successful management of finance, improved resources, and planning.

Home/school relations

Responsiveness to parents, whose fee-payments are vital financial determinants of continued viability, is a critical factor in Independent Schools. Pizzey (1991:95) asks:

> Is the management of our schools sufficiently skilled to ensure: (a) Continuing viability of our schools? (b) that implementation and maintenance of educational curriculum and facilities, is done within broader community framework, but to a standard of excellence to meet the requirements of our paying customers?

Recognition of the contribution of "individual members of the total school community" and the overwhelming response given to the Strategic Plan when "the Board turned to the School community" was the message from the Presiding Member of the Board of Governors and the Executive Committee in *Echoes* 1990. The activities of the Parents and Friends and the Old Scholars Associations are acknowledged as important contributions to the School environment. A roster of Board members' expected attendance at Parents and Friends Association meetings is given in Minute E25/91. The introduction by the Board of an After-School Care Program in 1990 has been monitored continuously and has become a permanent provision (Minute E36/91) as a pastoral care measure to complement the educational program.

Academic focus

The consultant's 1989 report commented upon the "excellent academic performance which your students have enjoyed for many, many years". The prospectus sent to would-be clients notes 'a tradition of academic excellence'. An official school pamphlet on Curriculum notes that "the school, rightly, has a reputation for high academic achievement". In Maslen's (1982:231) view, Friends' students "are subjected to formal examinations and to such pressure for them to succeed in their academic work that more than seven out of ten of those who complete their HSC go on to some form of tertiary education".

Frequent monitoring

In order to achieve those academic ends, attention is frequently focussed on examinations, timetables and preparation for them, in the weekly news sheet, *What's On* (for examples, see issues 16 November, 1990, 15 March, 19 April, 26 April, 3 May, 1991). Similarly, announcements about Parent Teacher interviews are frequently made for all sections of the school. The report of the Co-Principals to the full Board (11 May, 1991) made reference to the criterion-based assessment part of the incoming Tasmanian Certificate of Education and

to the release from class commitment of one teacher each semester to develop methods of assessment to comply with the new process required by the Schools Board of Tasmania.

Time on task

The timing of the independent schools' term dates is an arrangement made in conjunction with other members of AHISA; as such the agreed dates for 1992 were brought to the Board for routine ratification. This was duly done (Minute E26/91) but the Board asked that in future dates be discussed before they were decided by AHISA. The reason for this was a member's concern that as 'time on task' was essential for average students, perhaps it might be expected that more time in school was required by the community for this purpose. Also, changed social circumstances might indicate longer terms and fewer holiday periods to assist working parents. As Skilbeck (1990:65) observes, "the school day and the school year are generally much as they were several decades ago".

Use of test results

This factor reflects the North American concerns of Chrispeels & Pollack for publishing and reviewing test results as a means of comparison and for purposes of curriculum alignment. However, it is alien to the Friends' perspective to use attainment levels in this way. Examination results are not posted up, individual students and their parents are consulted about them. The matriculation results are the exception, commendable ones are recognised and reported to the Board, as happened at the meeting in May 1991. By that time, of course, the relevant students have, of completed their schooling and left school.

As one of the School's objectives expressed in the publication which encapsulated the Strategic Plan, the Board stance was given that it would be mindful of teaching and learning methods at the local, national and international level. The future may see the introduction in Australia of some semblance of the testing trends of North America, or continuous assessment as in Britain in post-Education Reform Act 1988 times. Little of this sort is foreseen at present in Tasmanian public or independent systems.

Staff development

The comment of a Council Chairman (Pizzey, 1990:92) that "maintenance of a committed and excellent staff as the very core of our existence" would find a ready response on this Board. However, the educational consultant employed by the Board in 1989 reported "no planned professional development", adding there appeared to be "not so many [teachers] who are willing to look at the good things which go on outside Friends and to learn from them". Subsequently, the Board made a Budget allocation for staff development. A Board member is delegated to attend the meetings of the Staff Development Reference Group. Regular reports are received from the Group. (Minute E138/90, Minute G8/91).

Curriculum alignment

As a result of improved financial management by the Board, the Co-Principals were in the position in 1991 to set in train several curriculum initiatives which they reported to the Board (May 1991). These included a journalism course (based around the School's newspaper, *Focus*) a motor skills program for the youngest students, a survey of requirements of students with special needs, a new primary mathematics program, a literacy consultation, employment of native speakers of languages other than English. As the Co-Principals stated (*Focus*, May, p.6) "1991 has been significant at Friends' for the number of initiatives taken to improve the quality of education we offer students throughout the School".

PROCEDURES

Empowerment

The School's Memorandum of Association under the Companies Act 1920, gives the objects for which the Association was established. In summary, these are:

- to carry on a school in accordance with the principles enunciated by the Quakers from the purposes of providing such instruction and other facilities needed;
- to acquire property, plant, patents and shares;
- to perform financial operations as needed;
- to provide for the welfare of employees; and
- to print and publish promotional communications.

The power delegated to the Board under the Articles of Association with reference to Companies (Tasmania) Code is "from time to time to make regulations providing for good government and management of the School and to alter and revoke such regulations" (Article 28). The Board is empowered to appoint a Principal. The Principal shall be responsible to the Board for the working of the School. Further, it is stated in Article 7 that "the Governors shall have control, management, and direction of the School and all the affairs and business thereo". This may appear as total power for a governing body. That this is not necessarily so is expressed by Pizzey (1990:91):

> Some School Council members I have spoken to, believe that their Council does not have the right to involve themselves in the educational aspects of their School. This attitude seems to arise from a lack of understanding of the responsibilities of a Board of Directors (the council), both when acting collectively and individually.

What may be categorised as 'educational aspects', and how this Board regards those aspects, is expected to become apparent from analysis of the procedures and policy which are detailed in this case study.

A procedural format recently devised for this Board is quite strictly adhered to. Two years ago, it was determined that "Emergencies excepted, no matter is to be considered by the meeting without prior submission of a written paper" (Minute E55/89). The agenda is

settled seven days before each meeting by the Presiding Member and the Co-Principals, assisted by the Board Secretary and the Correspondence Secretary. Following Quaker practice for Business meetings, a minute of Board consensus on all substantial matters is agreed and written at the meeting. In this way, firm control is exercised over the business of meetings. It seems to ensure that matters are not brought up in an *ad hoc* fashion, personal predilections are not promoted, nor is discussion unnecessarily protracted.

Time

Six meetings took place in the duration of the study, the last being a weekend series of meetings of the full Board. In the six month's period of micro level inquiry, meetings occupied a total of 20 hours and 45 minutes. The average Executive Committee meeting lasted 2 hours. The percentage of total membership attendance at the six meetings was 96%. There was 100% attendance at the full Board Meeting. Some form of social time for refreshment occurred before or after every meeting. Categorisation of the topics (Table 9) discussed during those meetings shows that financial matters occupied more time than others.

Table 9. **Time on categories of items discussed at Board meetings during a six-month period of the study**

CATEGORY	TIME	%
Procedure	5 hrs. 45 mins.	27.9%
Finance	6 hrs. 10 mins.	30%
Resources/Planning	3 hrs. 15 mins	15.8%
Curriculum	2 hrs. 15 mins.	10.9%
Welfare	3 hrs. 10 mins.	15.4%
Number of hours =	20 hrs. 35 mins.	100%

Procedure was the next most lengthy consideration. This category covers all the organisational details of the Board's operation at a point in the School's history when planning for the future development of the School was a preoccupation. In a School which accentuates concern for individuals, staff and student alike, it is not surprising that such a proportion of Board time is devoted to Welfare. The percentage of total time on issues to do with curriculum may appear short (11.5%), but the figure for this category was considerably augmented by the deliberations of the full Board meetings. During those sessions, discussion on the School's *Purpose and Concerns* statement was lengthy. Otherwise, matters which could be exclusively and broadly categorised as Curriculum occupied only 3.7% of the total time at Executive Committee meetings.

Membership of the Board entails commitments other than attendance at meetings. Social occasions, essential reading, sub-committee work, informal contacts, and, at that

particular time, a lengthy time commitment to a strategic planning exercise occupied governors' time. The amount of time incurred in membership of the Executive Committee was calculated from a survey (see Appendices 5.1.1 and 5.2.1) conducted during the study to indicate how much voluntary time governors calculated they spent on the business of the Board during one year. Members, *ex officio* members, and servants of the Board were asked to estimate the time spent in the first ten months of the year on work connected with service to the School. They were also asked to actually record how many hours Board business occupied in the last six weeks of the year. Comparison between the estimations of time already spent and hours recorded accurately, resulted in members finding they had spent either the same proportion of time during each period or, in eight cases, a considerable amount in excess of their estimate when they kept a weekly record.

There was an 85% response of the membership to this survey. Of the School employees who were surveyed, the Board Secretary estimated 85 hours and the Correspondence Secretary 460 hours were spent during the year on Board business. One of the Co-Principals responded. She reckoned on a commitment of 307 hours during the year, though adding a rider that it was "difficult sometimes to tease out Board and normal School business". It may be assumed the other Co-Principal spent a similar period on Board business.

Results of members' estimations (Table 10) of voluntary time show that the Presiding Member of the Executive Committee gave an estimated 349 hours to Board concerns in one year. The Presiding Member of the Board estimated a total of 143 hours. The average time given by a 'rank and file' member to the Board was 203 hours during one year. A total number of 2781 hours was estimated to have been occupied by Board business in one year by the 85% of the membership who responded to the Survey.

Table 10. **Record of Time: Executive Committee, 1990**

Meetings, n = 16	Members, n = 13				Responses to survey, n = 11 (85%)						
	s/m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	B/Pm	E/Pm	C/P
Estimate for 10 months	110	144	172	72	130	144	202	145	125	300	220
Calculation for six weeks	18	18	46	21	38	26	26	30	18	49	174
Total hours per member	128	162	228	93	168	170	228	175	143	349	394

Total voluntary hours	=1842 in one year
Total employees' hours	= 939 in one year
Total hours estimated	=2781 in one year
Average hours per member	= 203 in one year

Key: s/m = staff member, m = member, B/Pm = Presiding Member of the Board of Governors, E/Pm = Presiding Member of the Executive Committee of the Board, C/P = Co-Principal.

To arrive at a realistic assessment of total time on Board work for this governing body, there would need to be added to calculations the estimations of two members who did not return the survey form, and those of interstate members who were not surveyed. It could be assumed that some 3000 hours in one year would not seem to be an immoderate estimation for time for this governing body.

Roles

Ideally, school councils are widely representative bodies. Hansen (1971:283) makes a relevant cautionary comment from his Victorian experience:

> The governing bodies of certain independent schools are often deficient, influential members being businessmen of managerial or directorial temper whose grasp of educational issues is at best tenuous and at worst non-existent. A danger facing new and rising independent schools is a class of educational hobbyist whose affluent social status gives them a place on school councils. The councils of these six [Victorian] schools are experienced and established: the schools are fortunate. They rarely call upon the advice of an educational consultant, however.

The last comment was made nearly twenty years ago. Some Independent Schools Councils have availed themselves of the services of professional educational consultants since that time, some have not. The Friends School Board recognised a need for external expertise and has employed a consultant.

The level of experience in the work of the Executive Committee has, in the past three years, been considerably augmented by co-option of persons with skills in financial, legal, architectural and management skills. One woman educationist has been co-opted, and a female accountant has been co-opted to the Finance sub-committee. Men with appropriate mental talents and expertise from the parent community of the School have been invited to join the Board to complement the existent membership (Table 11). A wide experience in human affairs, and a majority of Quaker members, is evident in the gubernatorial context. The specified number of Governors (19 Board members, 13 of whom serve on the Executive), and the method of their nomination, is detailed in the Articles of Association. At present, thirteen Governors are Quakers. Many Governors have personal relationships to the School, as Old Scholar (3); past (2) or present (5) parent; or staff (3) member. Seven are Old Scholar parents. Eight members are female, eleven are male.

It has been customary for the Business Manager of the School to be Secretary to the Board. He is supported by a Correspondence Secretary who deals with the logistics of voluminous paperwork before and after Meetings.

Table 11. **Site context chart of Governors**

Occupations of Board members	Number	Q or n/Q	Notes
Co-Principals	2	Q	*ex officio*, 1 male, 1 female OS (1), parents present student
Yearly Meeting Clerk	1	Q	*ex officio*, former School librarian, OS parent
Veterinarian	1	Q	parent 2 present students
Retired teacher	1	Q	grandparent present student, parent OS (2)
Education researcher	1	Q	former staff member, parent OS (2)
Justice of Supreme Court	1	n/Q	present parent, parent OS. Presiding Member Exec.
University professor	1	Q	Parent OS, Presiding Member Board
Artist	1	n/Q	OS, ex-teacher
Staff member	1	n/Q	parent 3 OS, Chair. Staff Assoc.
Retired forester	1	n/Q	OS, parent OS (4)
Management Consultant	1	n/Q	parent present student
Economist/accountant	1	n/Q	parent 2 present students
Tertiary teachers	2	Q	Melbourne & Queensland nominations
Music teacher	1	Q	Adelaide nomination
Accountant	1	Q	Sydney nomination
University researcher	1	Q	Canberra nomination
Teacher	1	Q	Perth nomination
TOTAL BOARD MEMBERSHIP = 19			
in addition:			
Architect sub-committee facilitator	1	n/Q	parent 2 present students,
Accountant sub-committee member	1	n/Q	OS, parent 2 present students

Key: OS = Old Scholar Q = Quaker Member (n=13) n/Q = Non-Quaker Member (n=6)

Interaction

The Quaker method of making decisions pertains in the business of the Board. This method is accurately described by Scheeran (1983) as *Beyond Majority Rule,* the title of his work on this aspect of Quakerism. In it he describes the peculiar method which Quakers use to arrive at decisions. Basically it differs from the Westminster democratic mode in that minority wishes are not subordinated by those of the majority. Instead, no votes are taken by Quakers in a business meeting, decisions are made by consensus of all present. This consensus is ascertained by the 'clerk' of the meeting (the Presiding Member fulfils this role on the Board) who expresses in a Minute what he believes to be the sense of the group. In most decisions there is unanimity, but where this is not evident, a decision must be delayed until there is agreement or until those who disagree signal that they do not wish to delay a decision that others feel is the right one. This consensus is only possible if members of the group come to meetings, not with a fixed mind, but with the intention of finding a 'right' solution. It has been found on this Board that careful listening to others' views, interspersed with occasional periods of silence, tends towards reaching a creative solution to problems. It has the effect, too, of frequently extending the time necessary to arrive at decisions.

The non-Quakers on the Board appear to be comfortable with this participative decision-making technique as the method adopted for this governing body. It also obtains in meetings within the School. However, as Rutter (1983:97) is careful to point out, "although children need to participate in decision-making, if they are to learn how to take decisions for themselves, this does not obviate adults taking decisions for them, especially when they are young".

Rutter (1983:100) insists that Quakers "should not be afraid to act with authority ... children feel safer if we do so". Sometimes, the Board may appear to act in an authoritarian way however unintentionally. Sometimes it is expected to do this. The clear intention throughout the School, however, is to adopt a collaborative problem solving stance. The essence of the technique is affirmation of the value of each person. As a consequence, the aspirations and needs of individuals are always considered in the School.

It follows, therefore, that the channels of communication must be wide and free-flowing. Information is readily available in the many school publications. Acquisition of additional knowledge or skills is another feature which has come to the fore in recent years with the endorsement by the Board of staff development and the co-option of persons on to the Executive Committee to enhance its effectiveness.

There are numerous social and informal occasions for face-to-face contact between Board, staff, students, parents, Old Scholars. During the period of this study such instances

occurred at Christmas, at beginning of the School year functions, at a 'welcome to new parents' dinner, and, on several occasions, during the full Board weekend of meetings at the conclusion of this phase of participant observation. However, in the duration of this period, no member of staff has requested to bring, or has been called to present, any concern or initiative directly to meetings of the Executive Committee. This has happened in previous years. For the past two years, a member of staff sits on the Board as its nominee. He is not regarded as representing the staff, but is present in his own individual right. The same obtains for every other Board member.

POLICIES

Although there is no anthology of policies for the Friends School Board of Governors as yet, policies can be discerned as Minutes of the Board meetings throughout its history. In recent years the Board has addressed the formulation of policy more directly, as indicated in Minute E56/89 which adopted this policy for policy making:

> The Board of Friends' School realizes the benefits of well written and continuously updated policies. These should provide the School community with indications of the Quaker basics for actions taken by the Board and the School. Policy making is the responsibility of the School Board.

This has not yet been fully implemented. Scrutiny of Minutes gives specific policy decisions during the period of the study. They are deemed to be these which agreed:

1) to formation of a Pastoral Care Committee, to include Board membership
2) to commission a Schematic design for School buildings
3) to implement Award Restructuring in accord with teacher union and the Association of Independent Schools of Tasmania
4) to form Trustees for School Superannuation Fund
5) to form a sub-committee to oversee contract for first stage of building rehabilitation
6) to a fundraising campaign
7) to adopt the report on bursaries, scholarships and fee concessions
8) to the continuation of the After School Care Centre
9) to amendments to the Articles of Association relevant to appointment of staff by the Co-Principals
10) to discuss Term dates in future
11) to measures to improve communication between the Society of Friends and the School

These policies are widely disseminated in the official School publications that appear at regular intervals, weekly, quarterly, yearly. They are conveyed immediately to staff meetings by the Co-Principals. There is a daily Staff Bulletin in each section of the School.

Reflections on Case Study 2

This case study has been based on participant observation of the Board of Governors during a six-month period. Its operations are viewed from the standpoint of a governor. This view sees Quaker values clearly defined and operational in the ethos of this School. An internal and external focus on school characteristics, described by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990:6) as "school correlates" is quite apparent in this School's community.

Although implicitly non-hierarchical, the position of the Board in governing the School does not appear to have changed greatly from that of the First Committee which shouldered the management over one hundred years ago. Although, at present, there may be perceived to be a wider range of participants from the community than a century ago.

The equality which is aspired to in this School may be unusual in the independent school system characterised by the British Public School precedent. Nevertheless, discrepancies have been identified in gender equity. The fundamental inequality of socioeconomic constraints in provision of independent schooling is apparent. It may be justified to some extent by parents' right, in the words of Chapman (1984:29), "to choose a school where the values, attitudes and standards are consistent with what they wish for their children".

The amount of voluntary time required on deliberations of an empowered governing body is shown to be a significant amount. Significant also for certain employees of the school is preoccupation with Board concerns. The role of the Presiding Member, especially with regard to the Quaker practice of discernment of consensus for decision making, would appear to be crucial, as are the skills, information and knowledge shared by this School community in, to use the words of Loukes (1958:105), "efforts to reach a common understanding and purpose".

It has been shown how the educational quality of this learning institution relates to the factors identified (Chrispeels & Pollack, 1990) in Chapter 8. Effective student outcomes as a result of instructional leadership in the internal environment of the School appear to be enhanced by effective contributors from the external environment. These contributions may be judged from a listing of events (Table 12) in which the Board acted. These events indicate the general tenor of Board activity in a particular time-frame. Indication of the category of business to which the action refers is given.

Table 12. **Event Listing during period of participant observation of Board (November - May)**

TIME	EVENT (n=22)	BOARD ACTION	CATEGORY OF ISSUE
Nov. 1.	Pastoral Care Committee formed	Receive information	Welfare
2.	Budget	Decide fee increase	Finance
3.	Schematic design to upgrade buildings	Commission architect	Resources/Planning
4.	Publication of Dr Oats' book	Launch book	Resources/Planning
5.	Human Resource Data-bank	Transfer to Development Office	Resources/Planning
6.	Staff Development Report	Receive	Curriculum
7.	New staff	Agree to appoint	Curriculum
Dec. 8.	Award Restructuring	Agree to implement	Finance
9.	Superannuation	Appoint trustees	Finance
10.	Development Off. report	Receive	Resources/Planning
11.	First stage of Ceramics Centre	Appoint sub-committee to oversee contract	Resources/Planning
Jan. 12.	Co-Principals Report	Receive	Curriculum
Feb. 13.	Allocation ISBGAT	Receive, welcome	Curriculum/Finance
14.	C/wealth & State Funding	Receive	Finance
Apr. 15.	Fundraising Campaign	Appoint Chairperson	Finance
16.	Term Dates 1992	Agree to discuss earlier	Curriculum
17.	After-School Care Centre	Accept management change	Welfare
18.	Facilitate communication between AYM and School	Agree measures to improve	Procedure
May 19.	Year's Financial Report	Receive, approve	Finance
20.	Wage & Salary increase	Agree to implement	Finance
21.	Pastoral Care Report	Receive	Welfare
22.	Co-Principals' report	Receive	Curriculum

Key: ISBGAT = Independent Schools' Block Grant Authority Trust
AYM = Australian Yearly Meeting of the Society of Friends (Quakers)

A predominance of concerns dealing with financial, resources/planning and educational matters is demonstrated. The actions which were taken give some indication of the powers exercised by the Board.

A summary of the main events for governors during the period under scrutiny (Table 12) shows the thrust of the Board's actions, and the issues implicit in these actions. These have been expressed in the same terms used to categorise the matters which occupied time in business meetings (Table 9, page 218). Whereas financial matters occupied a considerable

proportion of gubernatorial time generally, curriculum and welfare loomed as pervasive issues flowing from Board actions, as depicted in Table 12. Although resources and planning did not occupy much meeting time, perhaps due to the work of the sub-committee outside Board meeting time, they figured strongly as issues upon which the Board was acting.

The intent of compiling an anthology of policies has not yet been realised by the Board. Formulation of policies showing support and response to the community of this learning institution is to be found in the Minutes of the Board meetings. The policies of this governing body are further analysed in Chapter 13.

Case Study 3.

The Tasmanian College of Hospitality Council

PERFORMANCE

Ethos

Four Technical and Further Education (TAFE) colleges in Tasmania are responsible for the delivery of programs which aim to raise the level of vocational skills in the work-force and to provide skills for people aiming to enter the work-force. TAFE is one of six independent Programs of the Government of Tasmania which were moulded into the Department of Employment, Industrial Relations and Training (DEIRT) in July 1989. The DEIRT Annual Report 198990 states that The Division of TAFE in Tasmania provides vocational education and training "in response to the needs of industry and commerce and the wider community" (p49) . The Tasmanian College of Hospitality is one of the four TAFE colleges; previous to July 1989, it operated under the aegis of the Department of Education.

The College is a single purpose institution serving the State needs of training for hospitality and tourism. It is the institution responsible for food trades, hospitality and travel training on a state-wide basis. Tourism is arguably Tasmania's premier industry. Each of the four TAFE colleges has a council which acts in an advisory capacity to the Principal. Councils are comprised of industry and community representatives who are formally approved by the Minister for appointment to a particular council.

Membership of the Council of the College of Hospitality comprises representatives of the tourism industry, including principal employer groups, industry organisations,

employee groups, the education faculty and two community members. There is a sub-committee of Council to oversee the management of the Student Residence.

In addition to community participation in Council, there are six Course Advisory Committees consisting of representatives from various appropriate industries: bakers, pastry cooks, butchers, and so on. Thus the forces of the community, market place and workplace are brought to bear on this learning institution. This participation by "the consumers of the schools' products" is advocated by Jennings (1981:49) who suggests that, in forming formal participatory alliances between the professional educators and lay community members concerned with a learning institution, "the vocational technical councils may be a useful model to try to follow". Despite his negative commentary on the frustrations and failures which he sees in the United States with advisory councils in school systems, Jennings (1981:30) finds the councils of vocational training institutions in that country to be "quite successful because they form a critical linking function between the training place and the workplace with obvious advantages to both".

It may be conceded that the curriculum in a vocational training institution is clear-cut in a way which it is not in primary or secondary schools. Neither can the formal contribution of its lay community be seen to be as separate from the concerns of the professionals employed in the enterprise as might appear to be the case in the general education curriculum provided at the primary and secondary school level. However, such a view presupposes two critical notions: first, that lay community members of governing bodies in compulsory education institutions have little comprehension of curriculum issues and their experience in human affairs is inconsistent with the requirements of administration of a social enterprise like a school; second, that lay community members of governing bodies of institutions where skill training is the primary concern, contribute solely in an advisory capacity to their areas of speciality. That both notions may be misapprehensions is expected to become apparent in the discourse of this study on the potential of community members to enhance outcomes of quality.

The College has evolved over thirty years to the pre-eminent position in its discipline which it presently occupies. As the Principal states in the introduction to the College's 1990 Report:

> During the period of its existence, the Tasmanian College of Hospitality has become recognised by the industry and the community it serves in Tasmania and is held in high esteem both interstate and overseas. A tribute is due to the staff of the College for their dedication in providing the quality of training which imparts to students the skills which have brought them acclaim in their industry careers. The College will continue to improve the type and the quality of education and training programs to meet the demands of our changing industry throughout Tasmania.

Since its relocation to a refurbished Drysdale House in 1980, the College has developed a distinctive and unique institutional culture in the manner defined by Beare *et*

al. (1989). Although it is acknowledged by Beare *et al.*(1989:179) that schooling is not restricted to "rational and pragmatic studies and to activities directed towards vocational preparation", their concept of two sets of characteristics present in all schools appears to be congruent with the aspirations of this particular learning institution, too. Firstly, there is present a distinct set of values, a philosophy, and an ideology which influence all that is done in the College. Secondly, the tangible manifestations of the College culture are to be seen in the symbols of the College.

The values and ideology of the College are the bases of its institutional purpose. That is vocational training. The College endeavours to reach the highest standards and quality in the provision of specialised skill training within a defined discipline. In addition, as the Student Handbook explains, the essential attributes of a career in the food trades, hospitality and travel industries are pleasant manners, appearance and attitudes at all times. These guidelines for behaviour constitute the priorities placed by the instructional leadership of the principal and staff for the effectiveness of this College. As such, they are subject to continuous reappraisal.

One instance of this reappraisal came at a Council Meeting (21 May 1991) when a request from the Vice-President of the Student Council for an option to change certain female dress requirements was discussed at length by Council members. The Principal expressed the view that what the students proposed did not conform to the high standards of dress that the College sought to maintain. Although accepting of the majority Council view that acquiescence to the request was reasonable and non sexist, it is clear from the wording of the motion (Minute 5.4, 21.5.91) that he sees difficulties in making such exceptions. He foreshadowed in a letter to students (13 May 1991), which he tabled in Council, "the introduction of a style of student college dress (male and female) to be considered for 1992", in other words, a uniform. Clearly, in this training philosophy, personal decisions are subordinate to a system uniformity to which this institution is committed. This predetermined position exemplifies the ideology of the College. It has been established to meet the needs of the industry for which students are being trained. Effective outcomes for the students will be employment in the industry.

There are many examples to be found by Council members of verbalised expression of the College culture. The aims and objectives are implicit in the nature of the institution, the emphasis of the curriculum is on the specific skills in each syllabus. The informal or extra-curricular student activities, which are reported by the student representative to Council, reflect the preoccupations of institution: car rallies, theme evenings, and formal functions to promote camaraderie among the student body. A student news sheet, *Rare Medium* has been a feature of the College over the years, its language and tone have reflected the practical intent of the College. Articles about drugs, assistance with personal concerns, and employment matters, are included in the text.

The pervading pragmatism of the institution militates against metaphorical musing about the College. It is tempting to use industrial analogies such as assembly line, input/output, routine, efficiency, uniform product, as a source of metaphor. But that would belie the welfare evident in concerns brought to Council, or the qualitative outcomes apparent in the documentation within, and about, the College.

Visual expression of the College culture is evident in the appearance of Drysdale House, both externally and internally. Again standards of maintenance are kept high. An imposing entrance, insignia patterned carpets, elegant dark furnishings, white napery, silverware, monogrammed china and cutlery set the tone for visitors and students alike. A coat of arms of the Drysdale family has become the College logo and is used extensively on all artefacts to do with the promotion of the College. The formal dress of the staff - dark suits for men, formal dresses for women - set the example for the students. It is compulsory for all to wear custom-made name labels at all times within the College.

The emphasis on visual expression of standards might indicate an immutable position which defies developmental changes. This does not appear to be the case. Council has been apprised by the Principal (Minute 6.4, [21/5/91) of the establishment within the College of a Direction Team to assess priorities and possible changes for the future to develop its resources and facilities in keeping with the particular focus of the past. In this the Council can be reassured that the College is fulfilling what Beare *et al.* (1989:193) find as a need for flexibility and feasibility, that is "The intention must always be there to modify and change the physical learning environment in the developmental interests of the students".

Behavioural expression is given to the culture of the College through the rituals, ceremonies and operational procedures of the institution. What Beare *et al.* (1989:196) call "organisational behaviour, formal or informal" appears to fit well with the environment with which it harmonises. The prevailing emphasis on standards of excellence in skill training, coupled with a congruent environment, is readily apparent to Council members. They are regularly invited to view the facilities - dining rooms, kitchens, accommodation, lecture rooms - and to attend formal social functions during the College year. These functions promote the College image and reinforce the impact of the institution in the community of Hobart, and in Tasmania generally.

As Beare *et al.* (1989:199) signify, the foregoing verbal, visual, and behavioural expressions form a Gestalt of an institution's culture. In the culture of this College, the transformational leadership of the Principal is evident. His attention to detail at Council meetings indicate thorough preparation. It lays the foundation for effective deliberations by the Council. The Principal's presence on all committees within the College, his representation of the College on TAFE committees, his profile in the media in promotion of the College, indicate his vision for the institution and clear perception of the mission of this organisation within the hospitality and tourism industry in Tasmania. His

leadership attributes appear to be shared by other members of the College staff and are communicated effectively to Council members. The maintenance of standards in the College is not a static condition, however, and indications are given in the following of the changes which have occurred in the development of this vocational training institution.

Changes

The emergence of the College of Hospitality as an excellent training unit with a first class public restaurant and accommodation training unit marks a thirty year metamorphosis from a Technical College training kitchen for one day per week release of cookery apprentices in 1961, to an institution authorised with responsibility for all TAFE hospitality training in Tasmania by the State Government in 1990.

In 1972, a training restaurant was established in the Technical College. This became a public trading restaurant in 1974. A year later a large residential property in the central business district of Hobart, Drysdale House, was purchased. It became the site where the then School of Hospitality Industry Services (upgraded to college status in 1977) became autonomous within TAFE. Separation from the Hobart Technical College occurred in 1976.

Additional premises were added with the purchase of an adjacent, vacant hotel, McLaren's, in 1985. Despite the Council's putting pressure on the Department to proceed with developing the McLaren's facilities, they have not been developed, due to lack of government funds.

Meanwhile, expansion of course provision continued. Full time travel and tourism courses were commenced in 1985 to augment the other courses which had been developed in cookery, bakery, butchery, waiting, and small business studies. The installation of the Galileo Computer Reservation System, reported to Council (Minute 8.2, 20/3/91) by the Principal, has enabled all travel and tourism students to receive a specialised technological training for the first time in Tasmania.

In 1987, a sister college relationship was established with the Tokyo Institute of Tourism. Subsequently, there has been an annual visit by student groups from Japan. The two colleges have also undertaken a program of industry based work experience between Japan and Tasmania for graduates from the respective institutions.

Enrolments of students at the College escalated from 383 in December 1979 to 1329 in 1990. This was the total number of all participants in courses at the College during that year. It includes full and part time students and those attending short term courses.

In common with other educational institutions, effects of economic constraints were being felt at the College during the period of micro level inquiry. The Principal reported to Council (Minute 4, 4/12/90) a reduction in staff by two teachers, and the discontinuation of pre-vocational and commercial cookery courses at Drysdale House. Methods of raising funds through the commercial activities of the College were discussed by councillors, who

applauded the ingenuity of the College staff in this regard. The Principal admitted "When up against it, it is amazing the initiatives and problem solving which appears", a remark which indicated to Council the high morale of the staff, despite adverse circumstances. A Council member foreshadowed the 'fee-for-service' type of courses which could utilise the College resources in future (Minute 3, 4/12/90). Under the restructuring of DEIRT, the College has assumed state-wide responsibility for the hospitality and tourism industry training needs. DEIRT has allocated an officer to oversee development of all course syllabuses in the food trades, hospitality and travel training areas. In a *College Bulletin* (30 April 1991) it is stated that this will ensure development and preparation of syllabuses according to the identified training needs of industry, together with the correct quality control and accreditation processes. Such a change would appear to foreshadow a change in the advisory role of Council in the area of curriculum development at the College through its members who represent specific industries. Therefore the function of Council may be included in the general restructuring of Tasmanian educational administration. This would be in line with redevelopment nation-wide.

In New South Wales, a Review of TAFE (Scott, 1989b:37) concluded that "the composition and role of Councils ... should be changed to make them more relevant and representative" for the reason that it was found in that State there was "little uniformity in the way councils. . . operate or in their degree of effectiveness". The recommendations of Scott for NSW are for grouping or networking of training college provisions. Community participation is envisaged, but at the level of advisory boards drawn from the whole network, not individual institutions as at present. The function of the proposed advisory boards is to review progress, to contribute to development plans and to respond to preferred program options. Developments in New South Wales may be the forerunner to restructuring councils in which the lay community participate in vocational training institutions in other States of Australia.

The establishment of a National Trainer Training Centre was foreshadowed at a College Council meeting (Minute 4, 28/8/90). Later (Minute 10.2, 20/3/91) information, given by the same member, indicated a 'very real prospect' of this being integrated with the College's redevelopment in Hobart.

Equality

> The mission of the Department is to increase the productivity of the Tasmanian workforce thus assisting the development of an efficient economy. Its programs will enhance the vocational skills of Tasmanians generally and encourage equality in workforce participation by providing employment opportunities, especially for disadvantaged groups. Through the provision of a range of education programs for adults the Department will contribute to the growth of an informed and learning society. The Department will assist in minimising industrial disputation, advise the Government of appropriate occupational health and safety standards and monitor the compliance of industry with those standards.

This is the mission statement proclaimed by DEIRT (Annual Report 1989/90). Later in the Report (1989/90:49), a stated objective of TAFE is "The Division continues to pursue a policy of providing access to TAFE for women and girls and this has increased their participation". Details of specialist TAFE program initiatives to develop this policy are given in this Report (p.63). They include courses entitled 'Skills for Rural Women' and 'Entrepreneurial Skills for Women'. Within the College of Hospitality, four of the five top students who achieved the best overall performance at the College in 1990 were female.

In the course of its development, the College has only had two Principals, both have been males. The Council President is male, as are sixteen of the eighteen present members of Council. Within the College faculty, the Student Residence Manager, Deputy Principal, Business Manager, Heads of Schools of Food Trades and Hospitality and Tourism, and the six Senior Teachers, are all male. The librarian is female. The General Manager of Training, the Secretary of DEIRT, and the Minister of Education in Tasmania are males.

In the interests of equable distribution of services for vocational training around the State, supplementary facilities have been made available in other geographic locations: Launceston, Devonport, Queenstown and Burnie. The College in Hobart is responsible for these outlying courses. The College Council is apprised of the concerns of these provisions. A strong concern by Council for the maintenance of quality control over tourism and hospitality training in Tasmania has been emphasised (Minute 5, 28/11/89).

There may be a misconception that a substantial number of graduates leave Tasmania at the conclusion of their training and are lost to the State. However, the view has been expressed to Council that students need to experience employment at the national and international level to be fully conversant with the skills required in this industry. Four overseas students studied at the College during 1990 as a result of the Government policy to offer a number of full fee paying places in TAFE courses in Tasmania.

The Principal reported this to Council (Minute 8.2, 20/3/91) that the reputation of the College has attracted industrial and commercial interest in providing scholarships to assist deserving students to attend courses at the College.

Some may read into the separate entrances for the public and the students (the latter use a side door into the administration area) lines of demarcation which may not be intended to be so. The less imposing side entrance can be seen as a convention to be observed at most places where the students will eventually work. It is customary in hotels and restaurants for employees not to use the same facilities as the guests.

Quality

Although not a set of factors designed for this particular level of teaching and learning, factors seen by Chrispeels & Pollack (see Figure 7, page 158) as contributing to achieving and sustaining school effectiveness illustrate how instructional leadership by principal and teachers shapes the context for student learning and results in effective student outcomes. As such, they appear to identify essential criteria for quality educational provision applicable to any type of learning institution. The effectiveness factors which are listed in the model provide a useful checklist against which to assess quality in terms of the internal environment of this vocational training, learning institution. Obviously, some factors do not apply with equal emphasis to adult as to child learners. Home/school relations may be one such example. Another may be that the skill instructional imperative can be seen to pre-empt an academic focus. However, even in both those instances, the headings listed for effectiveness factors are not antithetical to the concerns of the College. As an example, concerns for the welfare of underage students in the Residence were discussed by the sub-committee of Council at meetings during the period of the study (Minute 3, 22/10/90; Minute 4. 20/3/91). Student behaviour was reported to Council (Minute 7, 15/4/91).

Parents are invited to the Annual Award Night and pride in the attainment of family members is quite evident. The student is not viewed in isolation. Likewise, skill training may not be viewed as having any 'academic focus'; such a view ignores the high standard of general education requisite for entry to many College courses.

The contextual model of educational quality for the purposes of this governance study, depicted in Figure 9 on page 161, has included the Chrispeels & Pollack criteria for effective student outcomes. It has added external contributors to complete the total learning environment. The Council is seen as making a central contribution as one of these external components through its support for instructional leadership of Principal and staff. It follows that councillors should be aware of the how these effectiveness factors by which the quality may be judged operate within this College, in order to provide this support, thereby enhancing outcomes of quality.

Safety and order

Students are instructed in the use of safe working practices at the commencement of their course, according to the Handbook (p.5). The Mission Statement of DEIRT also emphasises "appropriate occupational health and safety standards". It is one of the responsibilities of the College to impart knowledge of hygiene to persons employed in the catering industry, and personal hygiene is regarded as critically important here. Students are warned that any use of prohibited substances would result in police action. The Council was consulted over a period of time about smoking in the restaurants. It agreed (Minute 8, 4/12/90) with the ban imposed by DEIRT on smoking within College buildings. Later, the Principal reported that the new policy has been received "extremely well" by staff, students and

clientele (Minute 5.3, 20/3/91). A Councillor suggested that as special facilities for smokers will eventually be allocated in the McLaren's building, a tobacco company should be sought to sponsor the refurbishment of such a room.

A safety concern in this area which exercised Council throughout 1988 was the lack of action by the Department of Education to comply with fire regulations on the McLaren's site. The situation eventually was resolved following a letter to the Director General from the Council President.

High Expectations

The standards expected of all students are laid down in the Student Handbook and are rigorously enforced. Expectations of pleasant demeanour at all times, and acceptance of "the highest possible standards of dress" (p.3) are among the requirements. Students are advised of appropriate forms of address and required to use them. A proportion of assessments on students is based on their dress and personal presentation. Punctuality is also monitored. Gambling, consumption of alcohol, even eating on the premises (except in the student cafeteria) are strictly forbidden.

Recognition and reward

Recognition of the College can be judged by its winning the National Tourism Award as the best hospitality training institution in Australia in 1989, and gaining a similar award within Tasmania for the sixth successive year in 1990.

The College's own awards for student achievement range from Statements of Attendance at courses, to trade certificates, diplomas and associate diplomas for relevant achievement. There is an Annual Presentation Ceremony to which all Council members are invited. In addition to Trade certificates and Testamurs, prizes and awards donated by industry and commerce are presented on this occasion. Students take part each year in national competitions held by the catering industry. In 1989 a Third Year Apprentice cook gained equal first place in the competition conducted by the Catering Institute of Australia. A Council member congratulated College teachers on the excellent results their students had achieved in Australian Workskills Competitions in 1991. (Minute 10, 20/3/91). According to the DEIRT Report 1989/90 (p.60), all graduates of the College's Associate Diploma courses have been successful in gaining employment not only within Tasmania but also interstate and overseas. Council is continuously apprised of College students' achievements during its formal meetings.

Home/school relations

As this institution is concerned exclusively with post-compulsory schooling, this aspect of effectiveness could be considered in connection with the welfare of students rather than those personal interactions implicit under a heading 'home/school relationships' for younger students. Despite the age level difference, the welfare of students is not ignored at the College, neither does it appear to be intrusive. It can be discerned in the arrangements reported to Council by the Staff representative (Minute 5.3, 21/5/91) for the three-day excursion of students to Melbourne for work experience. Another example is the interest expressed in student activities at the Council meeting (Minute 8.4, 20/3/91). The Student Committee, represented by its President on the Council, undertakes activities which include both educational and social functions within the College. Graduates of the College may join the Past Students Association which promotes interaction of former students with the College and maintains their identification with it.

In present times, a seeming dichotomy exists by which this institution epitomises a standardised style and expectation apparently at odds with what Marland (1980:25) calls "the age of eclecticism" marked by "the decline of deference" to teacher authority in learning institutions. This might be expected to have implications for student/teacher relations at the College, as these may be seen to be characterised perhaps by authority and conformity. Such characteristics are not generally regarded as common to contemporary systems of schooling which these same students would have experienced earlier in their lives. However, the immense emphasis on effective presentation within this institution does reflect current 'first world' societal expectations of affluent lifestyles, especially as portrayed in the age of television. Marland (1980:33) points to the significance of this influence, "This generation expects competent presentation at the turn of a knob". Thus the arduous training required to achieve prescribed high standards could pose problems for students and trainers at Drysdale. Students who choose to enrol at the College have to accept the standards imposed by the nature of the training. Concomitant with the apparent financial well-being of business life, and levels of affluence enjoyed by the society students expect to service with the skills they acquire at the College, comes conformity and regulation in the process of learning in this institution.

This has obvious pastoral care implications, especially in view of an anti-authoritarian attitude which Marland (1980:40) finds manifest in young people today. However, the efficiency implied in the quality outcomes of this organisation should not be seen as a barrier to true care. As Marland (1980:204) points out, "The hard fact is that efficiency is useless unless it is humane and sensitive". To this end, the Student Handbook clearly identifies expectations and regulations, with a foreword which indicates that the staff of the College are there to assist and advise whenever help is needed. The courtesy and warmth of staff is observable in the College. If, as Marland (1980:226) suggests, "The quality of care depends on the quality of regard", then the stable and committed staff at the College, would seem to exemplify good pastoral care practices in this learning

institution. Welfare of staff is another consideration for Council members. The staff representative reported to Council (Minute 8.5, 20/3/91) that "the *esprit de corps* within the College is very good".

Academic focus

It is obvious that the focus of the College program is necessarily towards attainment of skills appropriate to the hospitality and tourism industry. As theoretical principles in each element of skill training forms part of every course at the College, the content of the curriculum can scarcely be regarded as merely technical. A qualification for entry to the College's Associate Diploma courses is a Higher School Certificate credential. Applicants for courses are interviewed to ascertain their competency to reach required educational and personal standards.

The College Prospectus (p.7) notes "in the course of practical training classes, students gain knowledge and experience by working in the accommodation, kitchen, restaurant and bar facilities provided at Drsydale House". The full-time Certificate and Diploma courses at the College are subject to Commonwealth Government allowance schemes such as Austudy.

A comprehensive resource materials centre is available for student use. Outside sources of information are identified for the students in their Handbook (p.8), these included the State and Parliamentary Libraries. Full time College students are eligible for the borrowing rights granted by the University of Tasmania Library.

Frequent monitoring

Attainment of excellent skills is the objective of the curriculum at the College. It follows that achievement of competency in them is important. Reports from the Principal indicate to Council continuous measurement of individual student achievement. The College Calendar identifies for Council each year the frequency of examinations. The student representative was absent from the end of year Council meeting due to his exams (Minute 1. 4/12/90). Certification using internal and external criteria, and excellent results in Workskills Competitions noted by a Council member (Minute 10, 20/3/91) give evidence of frequent and varied monitoring of progress.

Time on task

Apart from a customary Christmas break, the College is virtually open for the whole year, as Administration reopens in the first week in January, and Courses begin almost immediately. The full-time courses pursue the usual three term formula, March to December. Short courses take place as day or evening classes. These are advertised state-wide. The specific duration of courses varies from 2 years full time to 6 weeks of 3 hours per week. Such information is given in a TAFE brochure.

Use of test results

Representatives of apprenticeship and training organisations, and of specific industries on Council appear to closely monitor the level of skill training at the College. An interesting phenomenon to be observed at Council meetings is the body language of members at times when their particular industry is the focus of attention: leaning forward, catching the President's eye seeking permission to speak, almost always wishing to comment on specifics to do with their concern, indicate commitment to their organisations. However, this does not obviate contributions from the same members to levels of skill training across the various disciplines. Recognition of the importance of achieving high levels of skill is evident in the comments and suggestions of these members. Awareness of recent national initiatives to upgrade skills in Australia is brought to Council by the Principal in his reports at each meeting.

Staff development

The DEIRT Report (1989/90:56) notes:

> Staff development activities within the colleges have has a high profile in recent years and continues to impact on the individual staff needs in the areas of expertise, together with emphasis on strategic planning and total college development.

As a result of restructuring, initiatives such as staff contracting with companies for TAFE services on a 'fee-for-service' basis has been encouraged by the Council. (Minute 8.5, 20/3/91). The staff representative informed the Council (Minute 4, 3/90) of the requirement in Award Restructuring for teaching staff to complete 30 hours of staff development annually.

Curriculum alignment

Developments in this area accelerated during the period of the participant observation of this Council by virtue of the appointment of a DEIRT officer to develop curriculum and the establishment of the professional consultancy within the College. Response to individual representations of Council members, as has occurred in the past, is unlikely to be as influential in future as the determinations of a professional qualified in curriculum development. The objective of the recent initiatives is to upgrade and coordinate training requirements and to maintain quality control of the outcomes for students and the industry. The establishment of National Trainers Training Centre may also foreshadow a more centralised control of curriculum content. These projected changes may signal that community participation as presently operating may be downgraded. The advisory capability of Council representatives closely attuned to the realities of the hospitality and tourism industry may be dispensed with in favour of professional expertise.

PROCEDURES

Empowerment

The Constitution of the College Council gives two objects for its existence: "to maintain a strong community/industry interest in the College", and "to ensure that all facets of the hospitality industry are aware of the objectives and existence of the College and to ensure that the college remains abreast of initiatives and changes within the tourism/ hospitality industry".

At least half of the membership of the Council is to be composed of either staff or students of the College. There is a requirement that the Council will have at least eight members. During the period of participant observation there were eighteen councillors. The functions of the Council may be summarised within three categories:

1. advice -
   - to the Principal;
   - to the TAFE directorate on policy, planning and courses;
   - to the Minister on requirements of the College with reference to equipment, accommodation, and staffing;
2. approval-
   - of commercial activities as submitted by the Principal for ratification;
   - of tariffs for accommodation, food, and liquor prices; and
3. assessment -
   - of priorities for the preparation of college budgets.

The Council is expected to provide a panel member for selection of full time staff. The Council President is Chairman of both the Consultative and the Planning Committees. These committees were established in 1990 for the purpose of redevelopment of the College facilities, including the McLaren's site. These arrangements were accepted by Council (Minute 8, 20/5/90) with the request that it be regularly advised of redevelopment progress.

The limited function given to Council through its Constitution, compared to a notion of self-government is quite obvious. This has become apparent to members who have resolved to revise the Constitution (Minute 3, 4/12/91). So far this has not been implemented for the reason that a function for the Council itself has not emerged yet in the current TAFE restructuring plans.

That advice and approval are forthcoming from Council members is apparent from the minutes of meetings. Powers for financial management are constitutionally limited to assessment of budget priorities. The regular procedure regarding financial matters is that the Business Manager presents to the Annual General Meeting of Council a financial statement for the previous year. This is duly discussed, accepted, moved, seconded, and recorded (Minute 7, 20/3/91).

As the powers ascribed to membership of the College Council are limited to advisory and approval ones, it is the participation by such a wide variety of

representatives which would appear to be the most important attribute which this body can contribute to the College. The exception to this is the empowerment of the President as a consequence of his skills in lobbying and working with the Principal to attain the overall objectives of the College. As a community representative, his chairmanship over several years has ensured a high profile within the organisation of TAFE for the College. His commitment of expertise and time to the College is acknowledged (Minute 8.1, 20/3/91) by the councillors' appreciation for his efforts in achieving progress on the College's redevelopment projects.

Time

A four year consecutive term is the time limit of Council membership, except for the Principal and the Business Manager. This has ensured some continuity and also a stability of membership allowing for commitment and collegiality to develop among the members. The Council is required to meet four times a year. Three meetings occurred during the period of participant observation for this study. The second meeting was the Annual General Meeting which precedes the annual Dinner for Council members and guests. The average duration of meetings during the period of the study was 2 hours and 27 minutes. An average of 13 members attended meetings. The average attendance of members was 70% of the total membership.

Topics discussed at Council meetings have been categorised into five areas of business: procedure, finance, resources/planning, curriculum, and welfare (Table 13).

Table 13. **Time on categories of items discussed at three Council meetings**

CATEGORY	TIME	%
Procedure	2 hrs. 33 mins.	37%
Finance	45 mins.	10%
Resources/Planning	1 hr. 17 mins.	17%
Curriculum	1 hr. 05 mins.	15%
Welfare	1 hr. 40 mins.	21%
Number of hours =	7 hrs. 20 mins.	100%

The table shows that organisational procedures occupied the predominant amount of the Council's time during the inquiry period. Strict adherence to formal meeting procedure entails considerable attention to matters such as correspondence, in and out. The restructuring of TAFE and problems associated with a proposed amalgamation with the Hobart Technical College for oversight of student residences were other procedural matters.

As the Council powers for financial management are so limited, budgetary concerns occupy the least amount of time in Council meetings, only five minutes at the final meeting

during the study was devoted to financial matters. Resources/Planning and Welfare together took up 38% of the total time for deliberation of Council during the three meetings. Time given to curriculum matters, even with the necessarily circumscribed curriculum of this learning institution, scored 15% of the total. This area was mainly concerned with provision of courses in a time of financial stringency. The Principal told Council "the College will only run courses in future where the need for them is demonstrated".

In order to gain an estimation of the time which membership of the College Council might be expected to take annually, individual councillors were asked to estimate the number of hours they spent on Council business during the previous year. They were asked to include any sub-committee work and social events in connection with their membership. As a result of a survey (see Appendices 5.1.3 and 5.2.3), it was found that the average number of hours given voluntarily by a member to College Council is almost twenty hours in one year (Table 14). Just over 72% of the membership responded to this survey. The possible voluntary time of the remaining 26% of Council members, added to that of a student representative, would give a more accurate estimation of total time which might be expected to be expended in any one year on the business of the Council. On the figures resulting from the survey, a total of around 500 hours would be a fair estimation.

Table 14. **Record of Time: College Council, 1990**

Meeting, n=4 Members, n=18 Response to survey, n=13 (72.2%)													
	s/m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	Pres.	Prin.	B/M
Estimated hours	34	16	13	9	10.2	13	32	15	33	18	129.5	16	22
Total Voluntary Hours	=	289											
Total Empolyees' Hours	=	82											
Total Hours Estimated	=	371											
Average hours per member	=	19hrs. 20mins. in one year											

Key: s/m = staff representative, m = member of the Council, Pres. = President of Council, Prin. = College Principal, B/M = Business Manager.

The time that the President of Council estimated he had spent during the year on business in connection with the College was specifically itemised by him as 112 hours, excluding meeting and agenda setting time. In total, the President calculated a commitment to Council of 129·5 hours in one year.

Roles

The Business Manager is assiduous in his secretarial duties to the Council in that agendas, minutes, and tabled documents of first rate order are provided. The role of the Council is defined in the 1990 Report of the College (p.5) "to advise, initiate and review college

policy involving the educational content and commercial operation of the College". Two contexts are specified for the deliberations of Council: educational content and commercial operation. Thus clearly defined roles are given for Council members, twelve of whom represent their particular branch of the tourism or hospitality industry and, as such, constitute a practical source of advice to the Principal. Of the six remaining councillors, three are employed professional staff of the College: the Principal, Business Manager (who acts as Secretary to Council) and an elected staff representative. An elected student representative and two community members complete the membership.

Composition of the Council (Table 15) identifies the representation from industry and the community, the gender of members, and additional notes.

Table 15. **Site context chart of composition of Council**

Composition of Council	Number	Gender	Notes
Principal	1	M	employee
Business Manager	1	M	employee
Staff representative	1	M	employee
Student	1	M	president of student council
Community	2	M	retired airline executive
		F	education researcher, parent past student
Representatives of:			
Catering Institute of Australia	1	M	
Tasmanian Visitor Corporation	1	M	
Federation of Travel Agents	1	F	
Tourism Tasmania	1	M	
Licensed Clubs	1	M	
Australian Hotels Association	1	M	
Meat & Allied Trades Federation	1	M	
Bread Manufacturers of Tasmania	1	M	
Tourism Training Tasmania	1	M	
Motor Inns and Motel Assoc.	1	M	
Federated Liquor and Allied	1	M	
Industries Employees' Union			
Training Authority	1	M	
Total membership = 18 (Males = 16, Females = 2)			

Applications for two community representatives positions are advertised in the local newspaper (see Appendix 13). Applicants are then interviewed by members of Council before the appointee's name is sent to the Minister for approval. Each member is expected to ensure that the interests he represents are adequately safeguarded. For instance, advertising the College restaurant, which has been established as a training facility, must not be so extensive as to detract from local commercial enterprises. Similarly, extensions to the provision of residential accommodation in the College for the purposes of training, must not undercut prices for comparable hotel accommodation in Hobart.

Interaction

A high profile is given within the College to the existence of the Council. A number of formal invitations to appropriate functions are issued to members every year. Examples of this range from councillors being invited to meet with students and teachers from the Tokyo Institute of Tourism at a reception in their honour, to requests to attend the Australian Cocktail Championship or the Catering Institute of Australia's Apprenticeship Cookery Competition. The advantage of councillors' attendance on such occasions is the informal awareness raising it affords them of concerns within an industry for which the College's students are being trained.

The annual Council Dinner is an occasion, catered for by the students, to which the Minister responsible for DEIRT, and the Department's directors, are invited to meet socially with the councillors. The President and the Principal have reported to Council (Minute 1.3, 28/8/90; Minute 7.1, 3/12/90) the visits to the College of both State and Federal politicians who have been invited there for the express purpose of informing them of the needs of the College. Thus formal and informal raising of awareness is a critical interactive function for Council members.

Comments of Scott (1989b:37) in New South Wales that the use made by College Principals of advice and support from Councils varies widely and that "in some instances, they do little more than tolerate the groups", would be wide of the mark in regards to the view of the College's Principal. He not only devotes much attention to presentation of material for meetings, but seeks advice and appears to favour open discussion during the Council meetings. He regularly draws on the lobbying skills of the Council President to support him in his endeavours.

Human interaction at this formal level of communication on Council has been frequently acknowledged as valued by the Principal. He said "it brings me into contact, within my own setting, with representatives from branches of the industry that the students will eventually serve". Hospitality is extended by the College to Council before and after its meetings. This has the effect of increasing councillors' awareness of the internal effectiveness factors noted previously in this case study as contributing to quality outcomes from the institution. The quality of the product can be observed by the demeanour and skill of the students present on

all these occasions as they demonstrate their practical skills. It can also be ascertained with the inevitable interaction with staff members in the course of attending meetings and functions at the College in a capacity as a councillor. Personal relationships have been formed between the professionals and individual Council members as a result of the interaction between the Japanese and Tasmanian institutions.

In keeping with the conventions of the College, procedures at Council meetings are strictly adhered to. Motions, speaking 'through' the President, resolutions, and so on, are formally observed at all times. The contribution of the 'rank and file' membership can be differentiated from that of the Principal and President. It is apparent that their encounters and deliberations between meetings are critical to the business which such a council might accomplish. Often the Council's role is ratification or acknowledgment of decisions which these two leaders have accomplished in the name of the Council. The detailed reports to Council which both of them make is evidence of feedback from their activities. They illustrate the close cooperation that exists between these two leaders when pursuing the affairs of the College.

On the other hand, discussion at Council meetings frequently reflects a collaborative dynamic which would negate any view of the Council as being a 'rubber stamp' type of organisation. This can be illustrated from the detailed discussion on gender equity and rights as perceived by members ensuing from the Principal's directive on female dress standards. In effect, the motion (Minute, 6.5, 21/5/91) reversed the Principal's decision in the matter. However, the problem was collaboratively resolved eventually by sensitive regard for the Principal's position. Resolution was arrived at that indicated mutual respect between councillors and the Principal.

It has been indicated in the foregoing that ample opportunities exist for councillors to communicate with staff and students at the College. As several Council members live in other locations in the State, other locality viewpoints will be expressed than those localised in Hobart. Intrastate councillors may take advantage of occupying the College's accommodation facilities during their attendance at Council meetings. The wealth of expertise and experience in both commercial and human affairs which the wide-ranging membership of this Council encompasses would seem to provide an excellent bank of expertise and experience to serve the College's needs by participative decision making.

POLICIES

There are no formal written policy statements in evidence on this Council. Policy decisions have to be deduced from the Minutes and the other documentation available in the course of membership of the Council. Through analysis of those documents, decisions which offer support and response to the work of the College, as it may affect its quality of education,

can be detected. During the period of participant observation, the following could be deemed to have been made in line with policy. It was:

1. resolved to review the Council Constitution,
2. moved to extend tribute to all College staff for effective budgetary management during the period of economic restraints,
3. agreed that smoking bans should be implemented at the College,
4. agreed to continue administration of student residence separate from the Technical College residence management,
5. passed that the annual financial statement be accepted,
6. expressed that the President's liaison with inter-governmental agencies in the interest of College redevelopment was appreciated,
7. agreed to alter student dress requirements, and
8. agreed to forward the prospect of National Trainer Training Centre integration with the College.

At the Annual General Meeting held during the mid-point of this study, a Council motion (Minute 7, 20/3/91) moved that a letter of congratulation from College Council be circulated to all staff for their efforts in achieving such good financial results in 1990, despite the difficult economic climate. This is one indication of the support which Council feels for the work of the College. Another is the detailed reporting to Council undertaken by the Principal. This tends to indicate his reliance on its support for his leadership, communicating as it does his vision for the College. The relationship between the Principal and the Council President is another strongly supportive feature in the development of the College. Their combined activities are mostly pursued in the interim between meetings, but are fully explained for Council's discussion and approval. The amount of time spent on welfare concerns at Council meetings points to the wish of councillors to make a response to the pastoral care of students and staff. Requirements for the student residence, safety and health problems, overcrowding in student quarters, have exercised the Council in the period under scrutiny, though no policies were adopted.

In place of a set of policies from the Council, there is a proliferation of documentation giving every indication of communication between the College and the Council. The quality of presentation of all the informative documents is of a high graphic standard as might be expected in an institution that stresses appropriate presentation. During the period of the participant observation study, this documentation has included official annual reports from the Department of Employment and Training, and the College of Hospitality; brochures on TAFE, industry training, and unemployed training course, together with an update on courses approved by the Australian Travel Training Review Panel; the first Bulletin of the newly formed College Direction Team, *Future Directions of the College* (April 1991); and the prospectus of the Student Residence. Through these

communications, councillors are kept well informed of the content of skill training, and the availability of facilities, upon which to base their deliberations on the Council. Within the College, the Student Handbook and the College brochure, as regularly updated, are made available also to Council members.

Reflections on Case Study 3

The primary purpose of this learning institution is vocational training for the hospitality and tourism industry. The objective is student acquisition of the skills necessary for employment. This pragmatic goal is accomplished in a learning climate conducive to attainment of high quality outcomes. The College's progression in developing an ethos in which these can be achieved has been described.

The changes which have occurred through the College's thirty years of existence have included the establishment of a Council to advise the Principal. It is intended to perform a supportive and responsive role in decision making and has had the potential to influence the quality of the learning and teaching in the College. To perform this task adequately, an appreciation of the unique culture of the organisation would appear to be requisite for councillors, as it is for staff and students. The quality of instructional provision has been related to a checklist of factors which seem appropriate as a gauge. Relevant issues that are brought to the attention of Council appear to relate accurately with the identification of quality outcomes in the case of this College. Recognition of the excellence of the product can be seen from the State and national awards and acclaim the College has attracted.

Aspirations are expressed about equality by the central authority responsible for the College (DEIRT). Nevertheless, the balance of gender equity is strongly weighted towards male authority figures in TAFE. It could be assumed that, as females and males partake equally of the services provided by this industry, they might have a more equal representation in training for it.

The equitable distribution of the training opportunities state-wide, emanating from the core facility of Drysdale House, is a valued development. So, too, is the sister college relationship established with the Japanese institute.

The well-ordered business proceedings of the Council, the amount of time devoted to its work by the membership, especially the President, and the good communication which has been established between the internal and external personnel of the total College environment, might appear to be somewhat frustrated by the quite limited empowerment of this Council by its Constitution. This seems to be an unsatisfactory situation on a governing body composed of a particularly apposite group of representatives from the precise branches of industry for which the instructional program in the College is designed. The opportunity exists for considerable input from these members if greater

administrative opportunities were presented to them. The significant role played by the President, in conjunction with the Principal, points to the potential available for greater participation by other councillors, if empowered to do so.

There are indications that changed representation, a revised constitution, restructuring of TAFE, and new directions envisaged for the College may alter considerably the procedure of Council in the near future.

Presently discernible 'policies' demonstrate support for the teaching, learning and, especially, leadership of the College. This is expressed through the recorded minutes of meetings which have been mentioned. There is no compilation of policy documents, as such. However, the documentation which is available to councillors, and the extent of communication, has been judged to provide Council members with sufficient information about activities pertinent to the College to add to their knowledge about, and expertise in, the industry.

As a means of summarising the performance, procedures and policies of the College Council during the period of participant observation, the deliberations of Council have been listed as a series of events and associated Council actions (Table 16). Indication is given of the predominant areas into which the issues which are raised by these actions are categorised, using the headings adopted previously for allocation of time in Council meetings (Table 13, page 239).

Table 16. **Event Listing during the period of participant observation of Council (December - May)**

TIME	EVENT (n = 14)	COUNCIL ACTION	CATEGORY OF ISSUE
Dec.	1. Proposal to restructure	Form Committee	Procedure
	2. Brief on re-development	Record appreciation	Resources/Planning
	3. DEIRT no-smoking policy	Agree with ban	Welfare
Mar.	4. Report on re-development	Receive	Resources/Planning
	5. Annual Financial Report	Accept subject to audit	Finance
	6. Student residence rationale	Agree to operate separate	Resources/Planning
	7. Projected lobbying of Federal politicians	Accept President's initiatives	Finance
	8. Proposal of 'fee for service'	Consider	Finance
	9. Prospect National Trainer Training facility	Agree to go forward	Curriculum
	10. Launch Galileo computerise reservation system	Receive information	Curriculum
May	11. Student dress change	Motion to trial change	Welfare
	12. DEIRT report	Receive	Curriculum
	13. College Report	Receive	Curriculum

Chapter 12

Inferences from the Case Studies

The research hypothesis and related question which this section has addressed have been the fourth posed by this study into governance, thus bringing the focus of research to the micro level of inquiry. The hypothesis that participants' attributes and a governing body's procedures determine beneficial policy outcomes for a learning institution begs the question of what constitutes a productive performance by school governors. By way of answer, three case studies have described governance performance, procedures and policies in one Australian locality, Hobart, Tasmania. Although these profiles of governing bodies in three learning institutions illustrate a varied cross section of educational administration, they do not represent a comprehensive picture of Tasmanian practice. Rather, they are sketches of three sites in one location drawn from a six-month episode of participant observation. The intention is to illuminate key issues which had been developed previously from the major factors observed in a wider international and intra-Australian context.

This section commenced by making linkages between major factors identified at the macro and meso levels of inquiry and key issues to be investigated at the micro level. Some further explanation was then made of methodological aspects to be encountered during the participant observation phase of inquiry. There followed the three case studies. Some inferences are now drawn from analysis of the data collected during the compilation of the Case Studies.

The Tasmanian context

The Case Record of Tasmania (see Chapter 6) makes it clear that the progress of devolution of decision making, a phenomenon with demonstrable variations in rates of development despite its universal trend, is slower in this State than in some others in Australia, such as Victoria. It certainly does not approach the state-of-the-art to be observed in England or New Zealand. The Tasmanian position may be congruent with local custom as expressed in the Education Department's Policy Statement *Secondary Education: The Future* (1987:28) which, while emphasising that educators at all levels should consult and work with community representatives, seeks to ensure that "educational programs reflect the traditions of our society and develop in students the personal qualities valued by the community". The Cresap Report (1990:6) three years later, however, finds that the organisation of the Tasmanian State system is "teacher, rather than student, oriented". It

goes on to advise "significant improvements to the educational system including bringing decision making closer to school and community". Such rhetoric is synonymous with that to be found in other locations which have been investigated during these devolutionary times.

Two of the governing bodies that have been studied (Case Study 1 and Case Study 3) come under governmental authority, one under the Department of Education and the Arts, the other under the Department of Employment, Industrial Relations and Training. In Tasmania, the same Minister is responsible for both departments. The third case study concerns a school independent of the public system, which, nonetheless, is dependent to a degree of reliance on State and Federal funds for continuing financial viability. It is also reliant on the Schools Board of Tasmania to which it perennially subscribes for curriculum prescriptions and accreditation at the secondary school level. The school in Case Study 2 shares the ubiquitous British Public School ethic with each of the countries in which the macro and meso level inquiry was undertaken. As such, it exemplifies a self-governing school model of participatory governance and provides a yardstick for evaluation of the efficacy of performance, the efficiency of procedures, and the effectiveness of policies emanating from the operation of its governing body. The two other case studies may only speak for themselves as councils in which professional and lay persons have some formal participation in making decisions for their institutions.

The measures which have been used to gauge the performance, procedure, and policies of all three governing bodies may be expected to tell about the outcomes that are possible when communities are empowered, to whatever degree, to collectively make policy for education at the school-site level.

Only the Board of Governors in Case Study 2 may at first glance appear to match the descriptor 'governance', for the label 'council' in the other two case studies indicates their advisory rather than controlling nature. Nevertheless, the use of the descriptor (Mitchell, 1982; Lavender & Findlay, 1984:93) to include administrative or management functions to the extent that they relate to the execution of policy and authority in institutional organisation, appears apposite to these cases. All three governing bodies seem to match the descriptors to a greater or lesser extent. In two of the institutions, the status of the governing body was found to be highly regarded, the third was less so. Analysis of the performance, procedures and policies in all three cases is summarised under headings related to the efficacy, efficiency and effectiveness found during the period of participant observation.

Efficacy of performance across the three case studies

One way of ascertaining the performance of the three governing bodies has been to adopt a self-assessment measure (see Appendix 4.2) A simple rating, in semantic differential form, was requested of participants on the governing bodies at the end of the period of inquiry. Each was asked to reflect on the collective performance during the year just past. The

response shows that in Case Study 1, performance of Council was not viewed as either satisfactory or effective. It was perceived to have deteriorated. Respondents were somewhat more positive about its influence and decisiveness. This rating contrasts with response from members of the other two governing bodies. These show an extremely positive regard for the governance work which had been concluded. Although Governors in Case Study 2 wavered between 'decisive' and 'indecisive' on the scale, this might be attributable to the peculiar form of consensus decision making which the Quakers, who own the school, practise. Likewise, councillors in Case Study 3 indicated that the Council had not greatly 'improved'. As the College Council was so highly rated elsewhere, this could be taken to mean that it would be difficult to improve. It became evident that any form of self-assessment was a novel experience in all three cases. Evaluation techniques advised in training for governance, as in England (Wragg & Partington, 1980:68), would be foreign to these Tasmanian participants in governance.

Besides self-rating, performance of governance has been gauged through how the cases aligned with the key issues of ethos, changes, equality and quality. The distinguishing features of ethos in each of the three learning institutions denote the relevance of recognising local traditions and customs at all three levels - macro, meso, and micro - of this inquiry into educational administration. The influence of culture, history, geography and demography of particular locations has been evident in the context of this study. International and intra-national perspectives have led to interpretation of these influences in the context of institutional culture as demonstrated in the verbalised, visual, and behavioural expression of the values, beliefs, philosophies and ideologies in the three institutions under scrutiny. In each case study, there was evidence that distinctive qualities characterised each learning institution.

It also became evident that aspirations for educational quality were different within each of them. The significance of this key issue would appear to be that community awareness of intrinsic aspects of their institution's culture is of special moment when it comes to participants' formal decision making for those particular institutions. It suggests that, to be efficacious, their policies should take account of the philosophy integral to the place for which it is being made. For instance, the necessity for informed and committed lobbyists, empowered by their membership of Council (see Case Study 1) , to promote the cause of improving facilities at an apparently neglected inner-city community college is different from the contribution to the curriculum which knowledgeable councillors might make to a vocational training institute (see Case Study 3). Different again is the philosophical commitment which governors of an independent school (Case Study 2) may be expected to make towards consensus building, as opposed to the conventional majority rule of normal business practice. Yet, each action is predicated on cognisance of the ethos of the institution in which it occurs.

Understanding of ethos, and alignment of the performers' values with it, would appear to be critical to productive performance by participants in policy making. The possibility that participants themselves, as empowered representatives of the community, could contribute, over time, by their deliberations to development of ethos is apparent in Case Study 2. A governing body in that school has been part of the ethos throughout its one hundred year history. It is suggested that, as governing bodies proliferate in the widespread devolutionary trend, incremental accretion to ethos may occur in schools as those governing bodies contribute policies which gain the confidence and trust of their communities. It is apparent that a strong contribution can be made by a governing body to address the particular needs of an institution because of their uniquely proximate, aware and empathic position in relation to the institution. It is this unique contribution which differentiates administration by local community participation from that of distant bureaucratic control and justifies the change brought about by the devolutionary trend to make decisions closer to the scene of action.

That changes in community perceptions and changing economic imperatives have impacted on learning institutions was evident everywhere covered by this inquiry. Restructuring has been shown to have international and Australian connotations which, in turn and time, impinge on operations in localities. The time-frame of the governance study coincided with a time of marked discontinuity in the Tasmanian government system of education. This was due, in part, to a general economic stringency and political imperatives. It was also due, in part, to consumers' pressure to have a say in decisions which affect them, perhaps particularly when related to their progeny's prospects in hard economic times. Changes have been foreshadowed for administrative strategies at the local level, not the least of which is the participation of lay persons in what has been a relatively exclusive professional or bureaucratic domain, educational administration.

On all three governing bodies, changes to their constitutions have been made during the period of participant observation in response to perceived need to do so. In the non-government school, another recent change has been a far-reaching Strategic Planning exercise which has provided the rationale for much of the governors' deliberations at this time.

Devolutionary changes do not appear to obviate a role for central authorities, particularly with regard to a necessary modicum of control of administration to ensure equity permeates the provision of education in locations. An implicit concern for social justice in the delivery of education has been evident as a major factor in the Case Records. It has been interpreted at the local level of the Case Studies as the key issue of equality of opportunity.

The dichotomy of reconciling fee-paying to the independent school with egalitarianism has been noted as a philosophical dilemma in Case Study 2. Whereas the rectitude of providing the whole community with equal opportunities to experience high

quality education is not in question in countries which share the British heritage, this essential social service is shown as apparently inequitably distributed as regards facilities in Case Study 1, to the detriment of the college concerned.

In the context of individual institutions, one aspect of equality is that of gender equity. All three institutions have been shown to be deficient in meeting this human right, especially in representation of both sexes in positions of authority, and thus as role models for females. Although in each learning institution, female and male students are almost equally represented in enrolments, male dominance has been apparent in the professional personnel, especially on the governing bodies of the vocational training institute and the independent school.

In each case study there was evident attention to matters of compensation for disadvantage. Governing bodies were concerned to offer opportunities to students needing special help, whether in terms of finance, curriculum, or pastoral care. Welfare at this proximate and personal level may be seen as one of the great advantages which local community participation in governance offers over that of distant, perhaps disinterested, administration.

The case studies demonstrate meagre representation of students on the governing bodies and scant input into the deliberations from those who were there. Students have never been members of the independent school's Board. There was no evidence in the case studies of the kind of enthusiastic participation by students that was witnessed in New Zealand and at Rosebery.

In short, the concept of equality presents as a complex picture in the case studies. On the one hand, there is a less than equitable representation of the sexes in high profile administrative positions, a necessity to continuously lobby for essential facilities in the face of unequal provision of resources, and a patent lack of egalitarianism when perpetuating the British Public school system with governmental financial assistance. On the other hand, there is rhetorical commitment to social justice and community aspirations to participate in each institution. This is evident in the Constitutions of these three governing bodies in which participants represent both professional educators and interested lay persons,. It becomes apparent in such instances as concern for disadvantaged students, and in an exemplary strategic planning exercise involving a whole community which was initiated by a Board empowered to self-govern its institution.

The criteria against which the quality of each institution's educational provision has been gauged are derived from a model designed by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990) for elementary schools. It is contended in this study that, while the primary purpose of school education is instruction or learning, it does not represent the totality of quality to be found in a school. A necessary complement to the internal contribution towards student outcomes is that of the social, cultural and political forces of the external environment, especially the support, response, and communication contributed by a governing body. Such a body can act

as a linchpin between the two environments. In the contextual model of educational quality (see Figure 9, Chapter 8), it is proposed that formal collaboration between the deliverers and the consumers of education makes possible interaction and communication. This may have the effect of enhancing quality outcomes for students.

In the case studies, awareness of school effectiveness factors on the part of performers in governance has been described. In each institution the learning activities in the internal environment have been promoted by reports and documentation supplied, usually by principals and staff, to the governing bodies. Further, there were opportunities for information gathering during meetings and by informal interaction on social occasions. This interaction and communication provides the control information and knowledge upon which governing bodies can base their policy decisions. In each case study, this appeared to be appropriate and adequate communication, as far as it went. However, in none of the case studies was any detailed information on curricular issues passed on to, or even called for by, governors or councillors during the inquiry period. In Case Study 1 especially, some of the educational components at the College - use of test results, staff development, and curriculum alignment - were found to be a closed book to several of its Council members who were interviewed. Neither were these factors discussed at Council meetings.

Quality outcomes have been shown to have particular orientations on the three sites. This introduces the concept of a distinctive or 'desired' quality elucidated by Dror (1973:63) as "the level of aspiration" of an organisation. The concept is given clear articulation in Case Study 2 by members of a community workshop on a strategic plan for the institution. They decided that quality of education is the effectiveness of the school to meet the overall objectives of the total educational community.

The needs of the students in Case Study 1 were found to range between the academic and the vocational. Expectations in the independent school, Case Study 2, were for academic success, as Maslen (1982:231) identifies, and the school acknowledges. In Case Study 3, achievement of standards requisite to the industry is the objective of instruction in that institute. The problem of what quality may be could possibly be resolved, therefore, by acceptance by the community of standards of excellence enunciated for a particular institution. What is more problematical is whether that standard of excellence to meet the requirements of the consumers of education, described as "our fee-paying customers" by Pizzey (1991:95) in Case Study 2, is the same community standard of excellence in education which Dewey recommended at the beginning of this century. As quoted by Adler (1990:xxv), Dewey found that standard to be "the kind of schooling which the best and wisest parents would want for their own children". While such sentiments may still persist and colour public perceptions, as noted in British Columbian aspirations to produce 'educated citizens', or in the Australian political ambition to becoming the 'clever country', variations in outcomes from just three institutions in Tasmania indicate that such polemics hide the reality of desired quality in individual learning institutions.

The plurality of provision and the complexity of evaluation of quality are not amenable to readily accessible findings other than a generalisation that it is probable that each institution has its own definition of educational quality, its own 'desired quality'. But it is also probable that there are still expectations in the wider community that quality education has one definition, and that a narrowly academic one. For many, schooling appears to have but one distinct outcome, namely accreditation for university entrance.

Efficiency of procedures across the three case studies

While schools may be engaged in meeting broad educational objectives - instruction, learning, teaching, training - professional educators do not appear to have conveyed these purposes adequately to the public (Scott, 1989:6). One way in which this might happen is through formal participation of laypersons in the procedures of governance. As participants, awareness of the core processes of the learning institution's internal environment has been found to contribute towards formulation of policy to enhance quality. Policy making may be facilitated by efficient procedures. Key issues in procedural efficiency that have been examined in the course of compiling the case studies are empowerment, time, roles and interaction.

Affirmation that a council is the single most responsible body for efficient functioning in a non-government school is made by Hansen (1971:93). In devolutionary times, "the politics of privatisation" to which Beare (1991:21) refers may mean that public schooling will be made to look like the independent system as regards the efficient functioning of school-site government. The procedures adopted to achieve that condition have been examined in three learning institutions, only one of which appears to be self-governing in real terms (Case Study 2), although all three practice participatory governance.

The level of empowerment of the three governing bodies is underscored by constitutional powers. These vary in each institution but, coincidently in the time-frame of the study, each governing body was undertaking constitutional amendments to redefine their respective powers. These initiatives in the two institutions under governmental aegis (Case Studies 1 and 3) were stimulated by official Departmental moves to change and enhance the functions of councils in the direction of the recommendations of the Cresap Report (1990) on Tasmanian education.

In Case Study 1, there are quite wide powers available to the Council of the community college to proceed in a climate of self-management. It became apparent during the inquiry that these have not been fully utilised by councillors. However, there does appear to be increasing awareness of the possibility and necessity to do this. Determination of broad policy for the College, approval of its educational program and establishment of financial priorities, even participation in staff selection, are powers of which the Council is not availing itself at present.

In Case Study 2, the self governing independent school's Board has the precedent of over 100 years of authority and control embedded in its power base. This Board is empowered to carry on the School in line with its foundational philosophy, to make and revoke regulations as necessary for all the affairs and business of the school. There are indications that, while financial obligations, resources provision and planning are tackled with alacrity, curricular affairs are eschewed.

In the vocational training institute (Case Study 3), its Council's actual powers are limited to advice, approval, and maintenance of strong community interest in the College. Nonetheless, the affairs of the College are treated with intense interest by councillors. During the period of participant observation, they exhibited both a sense of responsibility and accountability for the task entrusted to them.

In each institution formal meeting procedures are strictly adhered to. This has the effect of ensuring that, in the conduct of business, individual participants are required to behave in a circumscribed way that limits the promotion of personal agendas and produces a collective, rather than a purely individual, outcome from the deliberations.

There is an exception to this in the controlling influence of the person chairing the meeting. In each of the cases studied, a lay participant occupied this position. The manner of conducting proceedings that was observed leads to the opinion that the power of this person is critical to an executive committee. As is probably the case with all such organisational groupings, there are subtle powers implicit in the ways procedures operate in practice. Based on the evidence of these case studies of governing bodies, the power and influence of both the professional leader from the internal environment and the lay leader from the external environment to influence the deliberations of governing bodies can be discerned. It shows in their setting of the agendas of meetings but also in their reported interactions in the interim between meetings. It was apparent from the verbal reports of Principal and President (Case Study 3) that considerable time had been spent together, outside of meeting times, on the business of the governing body. It is reinforced by the amount of time those leaders estimated they had devoted to the work of the governing body.

A conclusion seems inevitable that a co-operative relationship between these two leaders is probably a more powerful determinant of efficient procedures on a governing body than any other individual or collective contribution to it.

Another stage of business, production of minutes, is in the hands of professional employees of the institutions. The Secretariats featured in Case Studies 2 and 3 consisted of a Correspondence Secretary and a Business Manager. In Case Study 1, the Principal retained his habit of recording the minutes and issuing them himself. In such practical matters, the procedures of these governing bodies are firmly in the control of professionals.

The key procedural issue of time is important for the professional and lay participants alike. A few aspects of time have been considered in the case studies,

including the tenor of the times, the time scale of the study itself, meeting frequency and duration, participants' voluntary time.

In Tasmania, accelerating change due to State political actions brought about by change of government, and local and national economic constraints prevailed during the inquiry phase. The political climate notably affected the two institutions under governmental agency but, to some extent, it also impinged on the non-government institution which was undergoing a major exercise in strategic planning at this time.

As regards the time scale of the study, participant observation was undertaken at the end of one school year and the start of another. It has to be noted that every institution is at a particular point in its history which may, or may not, be a 'normal' period in its development. In each of the institutions, changes were taking place which appeared to be of particular significance for their governing bodies.

Another temporal consideration, the frequency and duration of business meetings, varied in each case:

Case Study 1. 4 meetings of average duration 2 hours. Total = 8 hours

Case Study 2. 6 meetings of average duration 2 hours 30 minutes. Total = 15 hours

Case Study 3 . 3 meetings of average duration 2 hours 27 minutes. Total = 7 hours 20 mins.

The actual amount of time which different categories of business occupied during meetings is given in an across-site format (Table 17) showing predominant issues at meetings during the inquiry period.

Table 17. **Across-site categorisation of time (%) given to predominant issues at meetings**

Case Study	Procedure	Finance	Resources/Planning	Curriculum	Welfare
1.	52%	6%	14%	17%	11%
2.	28%	30%	16%	12%	15%
3.	37%	10%	17%	15%	21%

Resources/planning and curricular matters received similar amounts of time in each study. Welfare matters show that almost twice as much time was taken by Case Study 3 as by Case Study 1 (where staff morale appeared to be low and may have especially needed the attention it was not receiving). It is in the area of financial considerations that the greatest variation can be found. The time which the independent school's Board (Case Study 2) gave to this category is significantly greater than either of the other governing bodies. Alternatively, the time given in Case Study 2 to procedural matters was much less than the other two. Long term precedents for its meetings, relative to the less than ten years of existence of the other two administrative organisations, may account for this to some degree. These case studies of governance indicate that a much greater proportion of

time is devoted to curricular matters (over 14% on average) at business meetings than Macbeth *et al.* (1980) found on Scottish school councils. Nonetheless, the Board in Case Study 2 could be said to be distinctly reticent to discuss, much less make decisions about, curricular matters. This lack of involvement in educational aspects of the school may be accounted for, as Pizzey (1990:90) suggests, by "a lack of understanding of the responsibilities of a Board". It may also be interpreted as a deliberate, though certainly unwritten, policy to leave curricular matters to the professional educators.

The number of hours given by participants to the work of these governing bodies is voluntary and unpaid. A survey of members on each governing body assessed their estimations of the time devoted to the business of governance (see Appendix 5.1; 5,2). The estimations by participants on two of the sites (Table 18) may be expected to represent a fair approximation of hours that governance commitments occupy in one year. Poor response to the survey in Case Study 3 (only 21%) negates a valid result. The figures reveal that there is a considerable discrepancy between hours given to the business of the Board in Case Study 2 and those given to the Councils of the other two studies. A calculation, based on the average number of hours given by the participants, suggests that some 3000 person hours is required to accomplish Board business in one year, whereas 400 person hours covers the work of the Council of the vocational training institute. In the community college, where an average of 18.3 hours per member in one year was calculated from only three members' responses, a full year's business on its Council is estimated to take an aggregate of less than 300 person hours. In this case, though, the members' poor response possibly renders the findings less dependable, hence these findings are bracketed.

Table 18. Across -site estimations by members of time devoted to governance business in one year

Case Study	Voluntary time (hours)	Employees time (hours)	Average hours per member	Chairperson time (hours)	Members' response
1.	(34)	(21)	18.3	n/a	21%
2.	1842	939	203	349	85%
3.	289	82	19·3	129·5	72·2%

The amount of time which chairpersons spent on governance business is markedly in excess of average participants.

One other consideration of time with regard to participatory governance is the length of service time allocated for participants in the respective Constitutions. The quite

rapid turnover of members of Council in Case Study 1 is apparent, but there is stability in the positions of Principal and Chairperson. In the other institutions, longer terms of office are permitted. Membership of the Board in Case Study 2 could extend over a maximum of three four-year terms. Councillors in Case Study 3, other than the Principal and Business Manager, are eligible for a maximum membership of four consecutive years. Longer terms of service can be seen to allow for deeper understanding of the ethos of the place, greater commitment to the business of the governing body, and more consistent policy making from personnel who are familiar with each others' values over an extended period.

The differentiated roles to be played by participants who have carriage of the procedures of governance have been indicated by the variety of mental talents, expertise and experience, both personal and professional, which are brought to the meeting table in each institution. The chairperson's role has been highlighted in each case study. Important, too, is the leading role which the Principal plays as professional educator on each governing body. In each case study, there was at least one other professional staff member on the governing body , and on two Councils there was some student representation as well. It is assumed that the occupations of participants has some significance for their roles on the governing bodies. These have been listed in the Case Studies, with brief additional notes on some details related to each governing body.

During the period of the study half of the membership of the Council in Case Study 1 was staff representatives. Two places were unfilled. There was a small range of occupations covered by lay participation: housewives, an education researcher from the College neighbourhood, two business women (one of whom was a parent, the other an old scholar), a teacher and a teacher aide. While the experience of these people was undoubtedly useful, particularly for lobbying purposes, a limited role for the Council might be foreseen from such a narrow range of expertise. Four parents of present students were councillors.

In Case Study 2, a much greater spread of occupations and experience leads to the expectation that the roles adopted would diverge considerably. Although not explicitly identified in the course of the case study, the types of skills, styles and orientations selected by Hodgkinson (1981:147) from de Bono's typology were exhibited by individuals on this Board. Tasks requisite for adoption of policies were accomplished by particular governors. It happened that there were on the Board at this time persons who accurately matched the de Bono designations. It could be identified that there was an "idea generator" for the strategic planning exercise, a "synthesizer" for resource planning, a "researcher" for policy making on fee discounts, an "information compiler" for the master plan, an "explainer" for financial considerations and several "salesmen" for friend and fund raising in the school. In addition, the philosophical orientation of two-thirds of the participants who are members of the religious body that owns the school, the Quakers, would have its effect on values clarification within the organisation. On the Board in Case

Study 2, not only is there representation from many professions - education, the law, medicine, economics and accountancy, architecture, the arts and environment - there is the unusually widespread geographical representation from around the nation to complement the work of the Executive Committee at the base in Tasmania. The personal allegiance and relationship of several governors to the school may be expected to have an effect on their roles. The dangers of "educational hobbyists" on governing bodies, about which Hansen (1971:283) warned as a hazard in independent schools, may well be averted here.

In Case Study 3, a proportion of the membership of Council comprises representation of related industry. Only the associations which the councillor represents are noted, not the actual position member occupied within them. Three employees of the College, also a student (who attended only half the meetings) and two community participants complete this Council. At least three of the councillors are parents of past students of the College, one councillor is a former student. In addition, two representatives of the wider community are drawn from those applicants who reply to an annual press advertisement.

How conscientiously participants perform their roles may be gauged from attendance at meeting. The lowest attendance was that of the fourteen member Council in Case Study 1 (71%) but it was not far below attendance at meetings of the eighteen member Council in Case Study 3 (74%). Attendance at meetings in Case Study 2 (96%) includes a full complement of nineteen at one of the bi-annual meetings of its Board.

There were different forms of interaction to be observed between the governing bodies and their institutions during the inquiry phase. A variety of contributors from the wider educational community addressed the Council (Case Study 1) whereas in Case Study 3 little external advice was sought at that time. A considerable amount of knowledge and information was exchanged on the community college council. The reservoir of talent, experience, and expertise may obviate the vocational training institute's council seeking external advice. In the third case, the independent school featured in Case Study 2 had recently completed a Strategic Planning exercise during which a bank of community stakeholders was drawn upon for advice. This occasioned considerable interaction within that community. A common feature of each institution was the opportunity given to members of governing bodies to attend important functions in the institutions, and to serve on sub-committees in whose work they were particularly interested or skilled. Times of social intercourse allowed participants opportunities to get to know each other in more relaxed circumstances than at formal business meetings.

Effectiveness of policies across the three case studies

Examples of collaborative problem solving ability and available communications have been illustrated at some points in each case study. It became evident in Case Study 1, that few far-reaching decisions are called for on a Council. Thus procedural efficiencies, such as

adequate empowerment and the opportunities to obtain information, cannot be expected to compensate for deficiency in performance or sparsity of policy outcomes.

Evaluation of policies that support and respond to leadership, learning and teaching was difficult to make because none of the learning institutions had portfolios of policies. Nor were handbooks available to indicate to governors what their roles might be, or what procedures obtained. Such documentation would be of positive assistance not only to researchers but, especially, to neophyte participants on these bodies. It would also inform stakeholders in the internal and external environment of the school who may wish to know how determinations are made by participatory governance.

Decisions which were taken by the governing bodies in the three institutions have been discerned from the motions and resolutions recorded in minutes. Each of the decisions that is recognisable as 'policy' has been noted in the particular Case Studies.

What are the outcomes of these policies? Evaluation of school functioning by Scheerens (1990), and performance indicators for policy by Dror (1973), was noted in Chapter 2. Their criteria have been adapted to provide some measurement of quality from the decisions of these governing bodies. In both case studies of public education institutions, it is clear that their councils act to protect the core processes of the colleges "against disturbance and external uncertainty" (Scheerens, 1990:62). This fulfilment of a protective role is taken as one indicator quality outcomes.

Among other determinants of quality, Dror (1973:58) requires selection of criteria and standards for making assessments. Seven standards of quality are noted by Beare *et al.* (1989:211) as illustrated by Dror (1973). In Case Study 3, it is "optimal quality. . . how good it could possibly be" (Dror, 1973: 67) that is the aspiration of this vocational training institute. It permeates the internal programs and is clearly discernible as a rationale in the deliberations of its Council.

However, in reducing data to a point from which extrapolation or speculation about generalities can still occur, it is proposed to measure only indicators of productive outcomes from decisions made in the one institution that most nearly approaches the concept of self-governing administration, the independent school's Board in Case Study 2. It is the only case study in which there is a policy for policy making, however embryonic that may be.

Indicators of beneficial policy making

In selecting indicators to determine the effectiveness of decisions made by the Board in Case Study 2, the findings of Dror (1973) and Scheerens (1990) have been adapted as ways of measuring quality. While Dror (1997:26) selects criteria for quality, Scheerens (1990:63) asserts that "the only legitimate way to employ process indicators seems to always link them to output indicators". Primary criteria are not considered applicable for a product as ephemeral as educational quality. For the purposes of analysis in this study, Dror's secondary criteria are synthesised with Scheerens' process indicators to provide a suitable

framework for identification of governance influence on quality of education in a particular school. In assessment, the standard against which the selected criteria are to be judged leads to the output indicators. In order to discern beneficial outcomes, aspects of the formulation, adoption, and attainment of policy objectives are questioned in relation to policy in Case Study 2.

Is the end result as good as it can be?

Eight aspects of the policy process are suggested Beare *et al.* (1989:206) for examination as advised for evaluation of public policy by Dror (1973). These provide convenient reference points for the circumstances of this study as regards governance outcomes. The following criteria for a quality process are listed in the form of questions applicable to the concerns of school government, with answers evident from Case Study 2.

QUESTION	ANSWER
1. Are efficient policy making machinery and procedures in place?	no
2. Is there a formal procedure for receiving feedback and acting on it?	no
3. Are adequate strategies provided for implementation?	possibly
4. Is policy couched in operational terms which demands human carriage of it?	possibly
5. Does wide consultation and consideration of alternatives precede policy making?	yes
6. Has the process incorporated good planning, adequate time-frames, and deadlines?	yes
7. Have open and logical processes been adopted?	yes
8. Have values, beliefs, ideologies been considered?	yes

The negative answers to the questions would appear to result from the lack of a comprehensive policy making process such as that delineated by Hodgkinson (1983) or Caldwell & Tymko (1980). However, at the level of policy making, as perceived by this Board to attain desired quality, analysis of the decisions recorded in the minutes has been made (Table 19). Desired quality in broad areas of the school's concerns had been ascertained during a recent major strategic planning exercise involving many of the school's stakeholders. Assessment from these sample findings to determine if better end results are reached by administration performed by participatory governance would indicate that desired quality is being worked towards in this particular school. It begs a further question: what do these decisions indicate about enhanced quality from the contribution by governors at this time by way of support, response and communication? Interpretation from those 'Decisions for Desired Quality' is demonstrated in those three areas at the end of Table 19.

Table 19. **Process of policy making: sample findings from Case Study 2.**

	CRITERION	CONTEXT	DECISIONS FOR DESIRED QUALITY
1.	efficient policy making machinery and procedures in place	100 years of governing and recording minutes	initiatives to formalise statements on all issues separately
2.	formal procedures to receive and act upon feedback	reports: Principal to Board, Board to Principal for action (e.g. Development Officer)	formal reports as basis for future policy
3.	adequate strategies provided for implementation	staff superannuation brief to update and improve scheme	trustees appointed with
4.	policy to have operational capability in human terms	fundraising campaign	adopt detailed program and appoint coordinator with power to co-opt
5.	consult widely and consider alternatives	term dates	agree to consider views before reaching decisions to lengthen or shorten student or staff days in a school year
6.	good planning, adequate time frames and deadlines	upgrade school buildings	interaction between appointed architect and all stakeholders at every stage arranged
7.	open and logical process adopted	after school care of younger children	appropriate oversight facility arranged
8.	consideration of values, beliefs, and ideologies	communication: admin. and foundation philosophy	measures to facilitate and improve liaison

	INDICATOR	GOVERNANCE CONTRIBUTION
1.	clearer definition of policy	enhanced communication
2.	stronger acknowledgment of leadership density	enhanced support
3.	more realistic financial provision for staff	enhanced response
4.	better long-term planning	enhanced communication
5.	widening of the consultative field	enhanced response
6.	broad spectrum interaction	enhanced support
7.	greater adaptation to short term needs	enhanced response
8.	firmer commitment to underlying philosophy	enhanced communication

How effective are the policies?

The question format is applied again, in this instance to ascertain achievement of policy objectives as indicators of the quality of decision made. The following five questions have been suggested from the detailed prescriptions of Caldwell & Tymko (1980) referred to earlier (Chapter 2) as exemplary for formal policy making.

i. Is the policy clearly stated?
ii. Can the policy be made operational?
iii. What are the consequences of the policy for those affected by it?

iv. What are resource implications of the policy?
v. What changes will the policy bring about?

It is reiterated that identification and assessment of policy has been made more difficult in this study due to the absence of policy manuals. Consequently, analysis of the process, resource implications, and consequences of a policy have had to be detected from recorded decisions. An illustration of one such decision (Table 20) is noted in connection with upgrading school buildings (the sixth criterion listed in Table 19). Board Minute E45/91 stated "'We confirm our determination to use the master plan as our reference in planning and fund raising activities". This briefly identifies the decision. Assessment of how the objectives of the decision were attained is given in indicators of achievement. Further analysis follows to indicate which of the three areas support, response, communication is contributed to by this particular decision of the Board.

Table 20. **Identification and Assessment of a Board Decision**
Case Study 2: Master plan for upgrading school buildings

CRITERION	INDICATOR OF ACHIEVEMENT (assessment to date)
i. decision clearly stated	Master plan communicated to all community stakeholders through school publications and special meetings
ii. decision made operational	Architect commissioned; briefing material prepared by school staff; planning options considered; designs prepared
iii. consequences of decision	Health and Safety regulations; building approval; temporary accommodation arranged for those teachers and learners affected
iv. decision: resource implications	Fundraising targets set; consultant engaged; Development Officer appointed; community participation invited
v. decision: change implications	**Philosophical**: new approach to fundraising to be in line with school's values and beliefs. Compensate for changed 'family' atmosphere due to enlarged school **Educational**: extra provision for numbers of students and staff; extend curricular offerings; aesthetic enhancement

	ACHIEVEMENT	GOVERNANCE CONTRIBUTION
i.	more explicit communication to a wider audience	communication
ii.	greater utilisation of available skills	response
iii.	more detailed short-term planning	communication
iv.	more comprehensive long-term planning	communication
v.	greater attention to philosophical and educational imperatives	support response

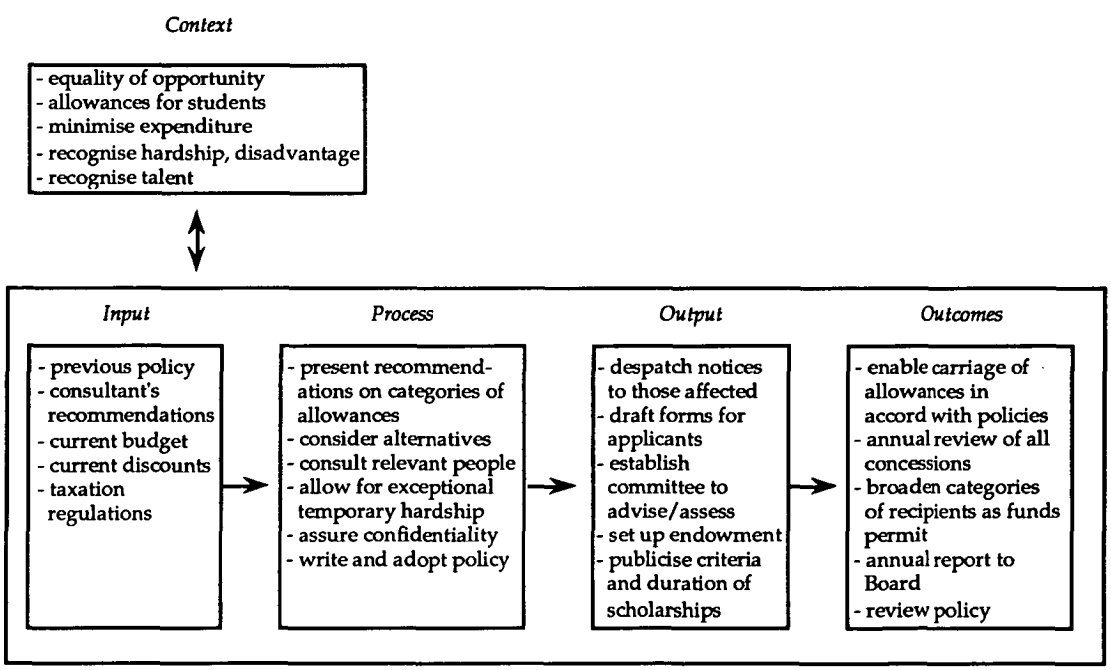
Are the prime objectives being achieved?

Not all policies have had to be deduced from minutes alone; there is an embryonic policy for policy making in place on the Board of Case Study 2.

Two years before the period of this study, the Board of Governors had made a decision to commence writing formal policies. Although few had been written up by the time of this study's participant observation, one which has been formally adopted as a policy concerns bursaries, scholarships and fee concessions (Minute E23/91). During the period of inquiry this topic was addressed at every Board Meeting. Consequently, analysis of the policy, as finally adopted, appears to be apposite to Scheerens' context/input/process/output/outcome system (Chapter 2). It is illustrated (Figure 12) to demonstrate how such a performance indicator of a policy measures many aspects of the governance function.

Figure 12. Analysis of a policy, using Scheerens' context/input/process/output/outcomes model

Case Study 2: A policy on fee discounts and allowances



The policy has as its philosophical base one of the key issues shown to underlie the performance of governance, namely equality. It is linked to financial concerns at a fundamental level: student entry to the school of choice. The policy combines social justice concerns which are at the same time philosophical, economic, sociological, and educational in terms of this institution. In this way, it may be assumed that desired quality is attained

by this policy formulated by participatory governance. Two propositions have underpinned this study of governance: educational administration is philosophy in action, and the primary objective of education is learning. Both goals appear to have been achieved by this policy.

Discernible policy making

These case studies appear to show that financial concerns can be a pre-occupation of governing bodies. As devolutionary practice takes hold at the level of school-site government, a prognosis that financial considerations will multiply at the expense of other aspects of governance has been made on the evidence of the three cases studied. Certainly more time will be required for them. However, that presupposes that there are no 'educational' concerns in financial policies, or in welfare policies, or when planning for resources. Such presuppositions are clearly not realistic.

Herein lies the difficulty of isolating indicators which might be categorised as exclusively educational in terms of quality outcomes. Although 'Curriculum' is readily identifiable as educational, other finite categories of governance business may be less easy to demarcate; indeed it may be artificial so to do. According to Beare *et al.* (1989:206) "every policy has nonrational or extrarational (i.e. values) which must be considered". This fits with philosophical basis for administration postulated by Hodgkinson (1983). Measuring quality by utilising techniques such as those of Dror (1973) or Scheerens (1990), may be equally artificial. Although useful mechanisms for indication of outcomes, these are but vehicles for assessment of some specific indicators. They assist in identifying outputs of enhanced quality from policy and they have the effect of underlining a values base for making decisions. They emphasise the need for evaluation of formal decisions or actual policies, and the necessity of reassessment in the light of implementation of those decisions or policies.

Conclusion to Section 4

This penultimate section of the thesis has been concerned with an hypothesis that participants' attributes and the administrative procedures of governing bodies determine policy outcomes which prove beneficial for self-governing institutions. While this presupposes self-government, in fact, only one of the case studies exemplifies that condition in reality. Even on that governing body, there was a difficulty in detecting straightforward policies because of its slow implementation of a policy for policy making.

Nonetheless, participant observation of the performance and procedures of three bodies charged with participatory government in their learning institutions appears to demonstrate in all three cases the potential influence they may exert on formal decisions. Those formal decisions that have been identified have been interpreted as 'policies'. As such, the areas of school concerns to which they are related have been found to be varied, using five categories of items across the three sites.

The policies which are apparent in one of the case studies have been further analysed to discern how school administration by way of participatory governance may influence outcomes of quality in that particular school. These micro level findings are illustrations of that "productive performance" of governance which is the essence of the fourth hypothesis and question (H4Q4) posed for this research. To some degree, the answer given to it in this chapter encroaches on the fifth pair of hypotheses and research questions (see Table 1, Chapter 1). However, what is intended for the fifth stage of inquiry is a more generalised view of that end product of educational administration, namely devolved decision making, and, in doing so, taking into account the conclusions of the study as a whole. In short, the following final section of the thesis summarises the governance study.

SECTION 5: The potential of local community participation in school administration to influence educational quality

Chapter 13

Conclusions: Research Hypotheses and Questions

On completion of the tasks set for the inquiry phase of the study into governance, there remains the task of finding meaning in the data which have been collected about decentralisation and devolution. The final section of the thesis is concerned with drawing and verifying conclusions from the findings of the research. In order to discern how the practice of participatory governance may fulfil the aspirations assumed for it as decentralised educational administration, the focus of this chapter is on indicators and outcomes of devolved decision making. The next chapter will finalise the study.

It has been evident in the course of the study that, at the beginning of the last decade of the twentieth century, redefinition of purposes for educational administration is widespread. This conclusion has been reinforced in Australia by Harman *et al.* (1991), and in the United States of America by Chubb & Moe (1990). Based on the evidence gained from macro, meso and micro level inquiry, opportunities have been observed for communities to assist in administration of schools to enable professionals to be instructional leaders and lay consumers of the education service to influence the quality of education delivered in schools. This research project has investigated the potential which a formal coalition of personnel from the internal and external environments of learning institutions has to effectively make policy which could enhance outcomes of quality. Indications of how such administrative means may attain those educational ends is the substance of this chapter.

Although the emphasis in this penultimate chapter is on devolution outcomes, as indicated in the fifth stage of the conceptual framework (see Figure 1, page 12), each of the original five pairs of hypotheses and questions (H1Q1 to H5Q5) will be addressed in turn with a summary of related findings from the inquiry.

H1Q1. The nature of a devolutionary trend in decentralised educational administration

Hypothesis	Question
H1. A trend in the educational administration of schools to decentralise from central authority to local community governance is widespread and accelerating.	Q1. To what extent is educational administration of schools being decentralised?

The research inquiry findings confirm what a literature review had indicated about the general direction of educational administration being to decentralise. There is an apparent trend towards community participation in administration of individual schools and away from central bureaucratic authorities. That said, marked deviations in decentralisation were observed even within the limitations of the samples of this study. Yet, there was evidence in those locations that were investigated of a paradigm shift from societal faith in authority to consumers' right to participate in decisions which vitally affect communities, in the way that education does. It was evident, too, that political imperatives expedited the trend.

The bases for conclusions about the nature of a devolutionary trend in educational administration is indicated by the following delineations of maximum and minimum extents of decentralisation. They summarise the evidence of characteristics observed in the widespread locations that were investigated. The maximum extent shown is an amalgam of what was observed in England, New Zealand and Victoria, Australia. Indications of the minimum extent of devolution were arrived at from observations in Ireland, Canada, New South Wales and Tasmania. Exceptions to this were cited, as in Edmonton, Canada, as in the promising Scott (1989) reforms in New South Wales, and as in Tasmania with a remarkable local initiative at Rosebery District High School. It should be noted that in every location, there were independent schools in the non-government system operating at that optimum extent of decentralisation, virtual autonomy.

Extent of decentralisation and devolution

The maximum extent of decentralisation and devolution is illustrated in:

- enabling legislation: departmental regulations substantiate participatory governance;
- clearly demarcated powers for i) central authority (common curriculum, testing mechanisms, staffing guidelines, equity assurance, compensation for disadvantage); ii) school-site administration (funding delegated to school, appointment, dismissal, suspension and retirement of staff, institutional maintenance and building contracts, paying salaries); and iii) monitoring ('safety nets' to gauge progress and public will);
- open enrolment, permitting a choice of schools;
- authority to change the school's nature, to close the school or opt-out of the system;
- the rapidity of implementing major changes and the expectation of tough transition;
- the specification of time-frames for changes;
- statements of values, beliefs, goals and priorities to be set for individual institutions;
- stipulated composition of a school-site governing body in an agreed constitution;
- stipulated number and conduct of governance meetings;

- the tapping of community experience and expertise for membership;
- members of governing bodies being elected, nominated or co-opted from providers and consumers of education in a school community;
- roles for professional educators, other staff, parents, mature students, representatives of business, commerce, industry, higher education, other professions, and those expressing interest in good government of schools;
- annual appraisal of governance performance;
- annual, formal reporting back to the school community by governing body;
- overseeing curriculum delivery, undertaking specific responsibilities (e.g. religious or health education in accordance with local *mores*);
- ultimate responsibility for a school's discipline rests with school-site government;
- recognising the need for training to fulfil the new administrative function;
- policy-for-policy making in place in each institution;
- the compilation of adopted policies, mechanism in place for regular review; and
- recompense for voluntary time taken by governance business; expenses or small honorarium paid.

The minimum extent of decentralisation and devolution is indicated in:

- being devoid of national policies, States' or Provincial rights and mandates diffuse impact of the trend and tend to confuse the public about participation in administration of schools;
- disconcerted efforts to bring about self-governance;
- few legal sanctions, sometimes none;
- ambiguous directives from the central authority;
- advisory and approval functions foremost for governance;
- inadequate funding to resource needs of a learning institution;
- governing body unable to take part in choice of appropriate staff to match community values or an institution's special needs;
- rhetoric about community involvement and/or participation, self-management, response to public will, masks the reality of perpetuated professional grip on school-based education;
- decentralisation taken to mean local centres of bureaucracy not school-site governance;
- school boards acting as legitimating agencies for policies of a centralised system to the community rather than representing the community to the school;

- responsiveness seen as a one-way track, the governing body responding to the needs of the school, but the professionals not reciprocating with response to community aspirations;
- control limited to peripheral matters (e.g. external use of school facilities, management of tuck shop, employment of groundsman);
- meagre amount of say in any broadly educational matters;
- school community taken to mean teachers and parents exclusively;
- exclusion of suitably mature students in school-site government;
- graphic promotional material on educational innovations may be deceptive of actual centralisation intent;
- lack of sufficient constitutional powers to make influential decisions;
- few discernible policy outcomes;
- dearth of skills to enable self-government to be decisive; and
- apathy in community to take up challenge of school-site government.

Continuum of a devolutionary trend - speculation on its future

Variations on the theme of decentralised administration have been observed in international and Australian settings. The different points that specific locations occupy on the continuum of a devolutionary trend illustrate the major shift in educational administration as centripetal forces are converted into centrifugal ones. The trend appears to extend from prospects of virtual autonomy for individual institutions to a diluted version of past bureaucratic administration. However, the latter may be so thinly spread from the central authority that, by the time it reaches the school unit, local participation becomes illusory. This movement pays mere lip-service to the rhetoric of devolution.

As the century winds down into its last decade, there are few signs of diminution in the devolutionary trend. Fine-tuning of restructuring and revitalisation has taken place, and modifications have been made already to the reforms of the late Eighties, in New Zealand and England. Severe economic recession in Victoria, Australia, has necessitated some retreat from its leading position in decentralisation among its peers. Economic down-turn in all of the countries which have been recorded may prove to be the greatest test of the effectiveness of decentralised educational administration. Nevertheless, it is difficult to envisage the dismantling of a reform as fundamental as devolution when the groundwork has been so thoroughly prepared in several cases. Participants have been alerted to the possibilities open to them to influence the quality of education in learning institutions. The extent of decentralisation, and the amount of resource in terms of finance, talent and human commitment appears to synchronise with values and beliefs about democracy and rights widely held about public services such as education or health. Thus,

as continuance of the devolutionary trend may be predicted, those characteristics that have become apparent during this study are identified.

Characteristics of decentralisation and devolution

It appears that the devolutionary trend

- has been prompted by dissatisfaction with standards of education;
- has been hastened by financial stringency;
- has been assisted by political leaders taking high profiles;
- finds educationalists occupying lower profiles;
- is confronted by teacher unionists;
- draws upon industrial, commercial and business management practice;
- shows professional educators and 'amateur' laypersons collaborating;
- can be retarded or forwarded by local custom, values and beliefs;
- depends on leadership of principal and chairperson at school site;
- requires jargon-free, user-friendly documentation to explain it;
- needs well considered time-frames for successful implementation;
- demands considerable voluntary time from community participants;
- does not obviate retention of central authority for curriculum, monitoring functions, financial allocation, or assurance of equity; and
- is permeated by democratic values.

Commentary on findings (H1Q1)

Confirmation of the hypothesis that a devolutionary trend is widespread and accelerating leads to a finding that many, but by no means all, decisions about school administration are being devolved to local communities. While it is evident that the trend's extent varies, the nature of the decentralisation seems to justify confidence that local communities are being empowered to participate in administration. But both providers and consumers of education need to bring commitment and exertion to the task if decentralisation along the lines of this trend is to prove a progressive reform.

H2Q2. Manifestations of decentralised administration

Hypothesis	Question
H2. An intention of decentralisation that professional educators and laypersons will collectively make policy for school-site government is capable of realisation	Q2. What are the major observable factors in the decentralisation of educational administration to school-site government?

The data which were amassed and analysed from the macro and meso inquiry yielded major factors in terms of a pattern of decentralised administration and concomitant processes manifest in the chosen locations. Political actions were seen to be

clearly woven into the pattern. They appear to have significantly affected administrative processes at all levels, from government, through central or departmental authority, outwards to individual school units. In addressing the second pair of research hypotheses and questions, findings of major factors in the pattern and processes are summarised, indicating the political activity implicit in them.

A pattern of decentralised administration

Evidence of historical, legislative, regulatory and traditional shared links was found during the inquiry. Anomalies in a shared heritage became apparent. There was an ebb-and-flow pattern to community participation in school-site government over a lengthy period of time and at different intensities in varying locations. That ubiquitous or unique demographic, economic, geographical, ideological or sociological features of locations may have instigated these variations was not pursued in depth, but further research into these variables is recommended. A worthwhile case in point might be the Collaborative Management Cycle at Rosebery (Tasmanian Case Record). It has gained international recognition as a model of decentralised administration. Many features of the pattern of decentralisation are present in it, yet Tasmania has a notably centralised public system. Inquiry into the genesis of this innovative project may be enlightening, for it would appear that, where there is community will to participate in administration of a school, leadership can make it happen even in seemingly unpropitious circumstances. Analysis of the liaison between the professional and community leadership that brought about this idiosyncratic development may further understanding of devolution.

Historical precedents for local community participation in school-site government were observed. One fairly common occurrence in the public system in Australia was highlighted in the New South Wales Case Record. Over one hundred years ago, a public school in Wollongong owed its existence to the agitation of a local tradesman and his neighbours to provide schooling for their children. Their subsequent nurture of the school that was founded eventually, illustrates community participation. Since those times, the monolith of centralised administration has come and is now departing (Scott, 1989; Sharpe, 1990). So there is nothing especially revolutionary about local community participation. What could be called a reform, though, is the formal empowerment of a local community to make policy for their own school. This still seems to be some way from realisation in Wollongong, New South Wales.

As all the locations that were investigated share a British heritage, there are similar traditions and historical features underlying the way their communities do what they do. Yet, as if to prove the deeply individualistic culture of Britain, it has been found that there are independent versions of educational administration within the

acknowledged trend. Dichotomous features of British culture, observable in the pattern are these.

1. A capitalist society where commitments to both social welfare and the free market result in inevitable conflict requiring accommodation such as greater cooperation within the whole community in organisation of educational administration.
2. The ubiquitous and democratic Westminster parliamentary system co-existing with a perceived persistence of unequal powers and advantages of a ruling minority as seen in dominance by politicians or professionals, also in discriminatory racial or gender practices.
3. An exemplary chronology of a government system of free education for all, and the extant perpetuation of privilege which the British Public School, and the private or independent school systems deriving from that model, demonstrate.

The decentralisation of educational administration which has occurred in Britain has brought aspects of all these cultural features together. It appears to be subsumed in what Beare (1991:21) calls "the privatisation syndrome". Market forces have been put to work in the government system of organising schools by placing greater responsibility and accountability for their operation on the school unit. The authority of the individual (or coalition of individuals), and the personal attributes and values of each participant, appear to become increasingly significant with decentralisation. An objective of autonomy for a school is analogous to maturation of the person. In human growth and development there is progression from the total dependence of childhood to adult independence in the context of community needs. Similarly, a school's dependence on central authority diminishes with the advance of self-government for the institution.

The school-site model of participatory governance appears to replicate that of the private sector management of individual schools, or groups of schools who share an ideological viewpoint, thus simulating the governing bodies of British Public Schools, or their derivatives. These schools stand or fall on the merits of the community support received. There is a danger of competition and divisiveness between school units in this privatisation model. In the government system, it may need to be countered by legislative and regulatory initiatives to assure equity.

An underlying motif to the pattern of decentralisation appeared to be the value placed on education by the populace in each of the locations. Standards of education, and the mechanics of educational bureaucracy, may be under criticism, but the institution of schooling still appears to provide a focus for cohesion of community values. More recently, educational values may have become more materialistic in terms of employability as an objective for student outcomes from schooling (Finn, 1991; Mayer, 1992; Carmichael, 1992). However, phrases like 'educated citizens' (Fleming, 1990) or 'clever country' (Dawkins, 1991) are publicly articulated aspirations that respectively find a response from

Canadian and Australian populations. Education would appear to be a vital concern for community members as it so personally affects their values, and those that it is expected schools will pass on to their progeny. This may account in large measure for the widespread media attention that restructuring of the service is receiving at this time.

A pattern of decentralised administration is manifest from the data. Major factors emergent from the macro and meso levels of inquiry are summarised as follows.

- Local communities may put their own 'value stamp' on school-site government.
- Anomalies in the cultural heritage present dilemmas for organisation of schooling, (e.g. contending economic rationalisation and social justice issues).
- Precedents exist for local community participation in the public system.
- Self-governing schools in the public system appear to simulate those of private school management.
- Decentralisation of schools to distinct units invites competition and divisiveness.
- Legislative and regulatory sanctions are required to assure equity.
- Educational quality continues to be a community aspiration.

Processes manifest in decentralised administration

Basic to the processes of school-site government is the precise constitutional power granted for the administrative function. The empowerment of participatory governance determines what can be achieved by the process. The constitution of the governing body mirrors the legislative and regulatory powers over-arching the devolutionary reforms of a national, state, or provincial scene. Comprehension by the community participants of what is possible, and also what is not intended, is critical to the process of school-site government.

Apposite time-frames for several aspects of the process of governance are required if decentralisation is to progress satisfactorily. There needs to be adequate time for change processes to occur; and adequate time to function as an executive and acquire essential knowledge. It seems necessary that training, appraisal, feedback, reporting and socialising time be available for both professional and lay participants in governance.

Despite evidence from the macro and meso inquiry of a pattern of devolution, professional educators and bureaucrats still appeared able to retain an autocratic control of education in some places. Even when the devolutionary trend was well-advanced, it appeared feasible for professionals to conserve dominant positions. At some points during the inquiry, the superiority of professionals to control all aspects of education appeared to be expected, or at least tacitly accepted, by the general public. There were participants in governance who expressed a lack of confidence that they could exert any real influence, or

that they really wanted to. Expressions of regret about this apparent apathy or sense of inferiority were voiced to the researcher by one or two principals. However, these contra-indications to the pattern of a devolutionary trend could not mask the overall thrust towards participation in school-site government by a coalition of local professional educators and 'amateur' laypersons. In most of the locations there was ample evidence of enthusiasm for, and dedication to, the collaborative task demanded for school units.

An exception to the amateur status of laypersons in governance should be mentioned in the model of governing bodies for vocational/technical institutions. Lay representation on them comprises persons knowledgeable about the particular industry's need for skilled workers, and possessing the requisite skills. It is apparent that expertise of such laypersons is recognised by the professional educators. This predisposes a successful coalition between them.

Knowledge and information about education and the organisation of schooling appears to have been the prerogative of professional educationalists, educators, and administrators prior to the devolutionary trend in government school systems in many places. This exclusive and excluding power presents a superordinate role for professionals and a subordinate one for lay members on governing bodies. It can put in jeopardy the collaboration of participants in the processes of school-site government. *Bona fide* zones of influence can develop into sharply differentiated and hierarchical sectors. A measure to counteract confrontation between the zones has been to introduce training for the collaborative administrative function. Courses for professionals and laity, either together or separate, and publications on how to govern schools are common in locations where devolution is mandatory.

Meaningful communication is called for between a community and its learning institution; so, too, between a nation's populace and its education system. Media could be harnessed to highlight positively the contribution of both zones of influence to attain clearly articulated national goals for education. More negative evidence in this regard was found during the macro and meso levels of inquiry than positive promotion of educational achievement.

Major factors in the processes of decentralised administration evident during the macro and meso level inquiry may be stated briefly.

- Fundamental changes to educational administration vary according to degrees of empowerment.
- Apposite time-frames are required in governance function.
- Differentiated but balanced zones of influence for professionals and 'amateurs' assist in ensuring successful collaboration in collective decision-making.
- Appropriate and adequate communication is critical to successful devolution.

Politics manifest in decentralised administration

For the last decade or so, in the countries which have been investigated, it appears that education has been regarded by politicians as a vehicle for social and economic policy. Response to the 'peoples will', sanctioned by democratic ballot box means, has resulted in a remarkable consensus in the widely separated countries of England and New Zealand. Accusations of New Right imperatives in educational administration were noted, although political party allegiance appeared to be inconsequential to the argument. New Zealand Labour Party initiatives coincided with those of the Conservative Party in England. In both places, reforms were spearheaded by political leaders: the purportedly socialist, David Lange, and Tory, Margaret Thatcher. A similar situation was observed in the State of New South Wales. Revitalisation, renewal and restructuring became catchwords for the Liberal Griener government to bring about a measure of devolution. This was implemented through the recommendations of the Scott Report (1989). Following it, the then Education Minister, Dr Terry Metherell, gained a high profile during confrontation with teacher unions and consumer bodies alike. Inputs by professional educators were perceived to be minimal in the reform, a complaint that was echoed by informants in New Zealand and in England.

At the micro level of the school unit, political activity and leadership plays its part, too. Of particular import is the persuasive power of educational leaders, the school principals, and their relationship with community leaders, the chairpersons of the governing bodies. These persons could be seen to play politics in schools' administration.

Commentary on findings (H2Q2)

The pattern, processes and politics evident in the decentralisation of educational administration are seen to contribute to breaking down the 'monolithic' control of education held by professional teachers and administrative bureaucrats. An apparent intention of decentralisation, that professionals and laypersons collectively increase their participation in policy making for school-site government, proves possible of realisation from the data collected for this study. However, the macro and meso level inquiry findings indicate anomalies to be overcome in doing it. There appear to be distinctive motifs in the pattern of decentralisation, critical elements implicated in its processes, and significant political action and activities in its development and implementation. Among the major factors outlined have been variations in the heritage shared by the particular locations, cultural connections, and change to a privatisation syndrome for public schools. Apparently there is a continuing high value put on education. Sufficient empowerment, time and communication are required for effective participatory governance when decentralising educational administration to the school site.

H3Q3: Administration's contribution to educational quality

Hypothesis	Question
H3. Administration by school-site governance can contribute positively to the quality of education in a learning institution.	Q3. How can school-site governance contribute to enhancing quality in a learning institution?

As answers to the third research question, the related hypothesis is dissected into three parts - educational quality, administration, and school-site governance - for which findings are given.

Educational quality

Quality is an elusive idea. A broad brush description of educational quality might be that learning outcomes should match the expectations for the teaching inputs. Even allowing for intervening variables - student learning ability, teacher's pedagogical capability, institutional variations in curriculum content - this would seem to be a simplistic view. Literature reviewed and research findings noted, added to sources of information during the macro and meso level of this inquiry, confirm that educational quality is more complex and multi-dimensional than at first appears. While learning and teaching are indubitably core processes in schools, administration can be seen as a distinctive but complementary contribution to the instructional leadership provided by principals and teachers. Both sets of contributors shape the context for attainment of effective student outcomes. School-site administration by means of participatory governance brings into contention two zones of influence, the internal environment of professional educators and the external environment of community and authority. In devolutionary times in the public system and in independent schools, external social, cultural and political forces have a focal point in formally constituted governing bodies in each school where participants from both environments collaborate to administer the institution. In this way, it is possible for a local community to make a contribution to educational quality.

Some apparent essentials for quality of education have been derived from this study of governance. These may be stated briefly.

Educational quality:

- should be student focused;
- should give a socially democratic vision of community;
- provides for community participation in aiming for quality outcomes;
- perceptions vary in localities and institutions;
- depends on the nature of people and of society;
- provision incurs a vital role for relationships;
- outcomes need to be measured and articulated so the public can judge quality;
- achievement relies on school environment and instructional factors;

- is strongly affected by a school's culture;
- has national, local, institutional and personal dimensions; and
- can be recognised as a subjective entity.

Administration

Educational administration has been found in theory and practice to be a separate function from curriculum and instructional practices. Yet, it still appears to be regarded in some quarters as the exclusive task of professional educators or bureaucrats. This is strange when one considers that oversight and general direction of the government system of education is in the hands of politicians in government who, most often, are not professional educators themselves.

The theory of Hodgkinson (1983:3) that administration is philosophy in action, and that administrative function can be construed as the art of imposing order, has been found during this inquiry to be what is envisaged to occur in participatory governance. A taxonomic model, P3M3, devised by Hodgkinson (1981:147) has been described (Chapters 2 and 8) and found applicable to the context of this study in that it concisely distinguishes policy making and policy implementation. These have been explained (Chapter 8) as complementary external and internal functions within the total educational environment of a learning institution. In P3M3, administration is distinctively a policy making role for executives (in this case, members of governing bodies) whereas policy implementation is a role for management (educators within the school). Hodgkinson's treatment of the administrative terrain diagnoses the elements of both areas and establishes a critical linkage between them. That linkage occurs when policy-making executives motivate policy-implementing managers to the organisational purpose and receive back information with which to revise, or to make further, policy.

The policies which are adopted by administrators are based on the philosophies of the system, or institution, for which they are intended. While there may be broad national philosophical aims and goals there can also be values and beliefs intrinsic to institutions. An example of this can be seen in the national curriculum to be policed by governors in British schools, wherein, for example, discretion is allowed for Welsh language as a core subject where appropriate, or for the content of a daily act of worship.

At an institutional level, school-site administrators can modify, vary or emphasise aspects of centrally directed educational policy in a manner which more nearly meets the requirements of its clientele. This is exemplified in the Collaborative School Management Cycle observed in Rosebery (see the Tasmanian Case Record, Chapter 6).

Different models of policy making have been noted as well as different concerns about which policy needs to be made. For the purposes of this study, administrative business has been categorised into concerns about procedure, finance, resources, planning,

curriculum and welfare. During the inquiry it was observed that there can be an over-emphasis on administrative procedures during meetings particularly where these are not concisely delineated, or are in the process of change.

In theory, guidelines for educational policy making (Caldwell & Tymko, 1980) indicate the need for a systemic or institutional policy on policy making that reflects the values of society and the goals of the institution, and meets legal and regulatory requirements. A policy is defined as a major guideline for future discretionary action and needs to be well-written, reviewed and updated as necessary. In practice, methods used to articulate policy appear much less clear-cut, they usually take the form of resolutions or formal motions recorded in minutes of business meetings. This tends to leave the connection between the areas of policy making and policy implementation exclusively in the hands of the professional leader. Such a condition is neither the intention of collaborative school-site governance in devolutionary times, nor the outcome proposed by theories of imposing order in organisations, exemplified in Hodgkinson's P3M3 taxonomy.

The skills and mental talents required of policy makers have been shown to be considerable. The exigencies of participatory governance appear to demand diversity of experience to negotiate policy if it is to have beneficial outcomes. Participants' values and empathy with the clearly enunciated objectives of the institution they serve by governance may contribute to quality.

In order to expedite administration by participatory governance it became apparent that there are certain elements in that form of school-site government that need to be recognised.

Elements of educational administration are as follows.

- The administrative function is discrete from the technical nature of teaching.
- Policy making is the function of administration.
- Philosophies underpin policies adopted by administrators.
- The provision of information by policy implementers activates continuation of policy making.
- Preoccupation with procedural matters can detract from effectiveness.
- An ideal imposition of organisational order calls for executives with diverse skills but compatible values.

Participatory governance

The labels 'professional' and 'layperson' have been applied in a general way throughout this study to distinguish the roles of educators in a school system and lay participants in institutional governance. In the light of organisational theory which holds with

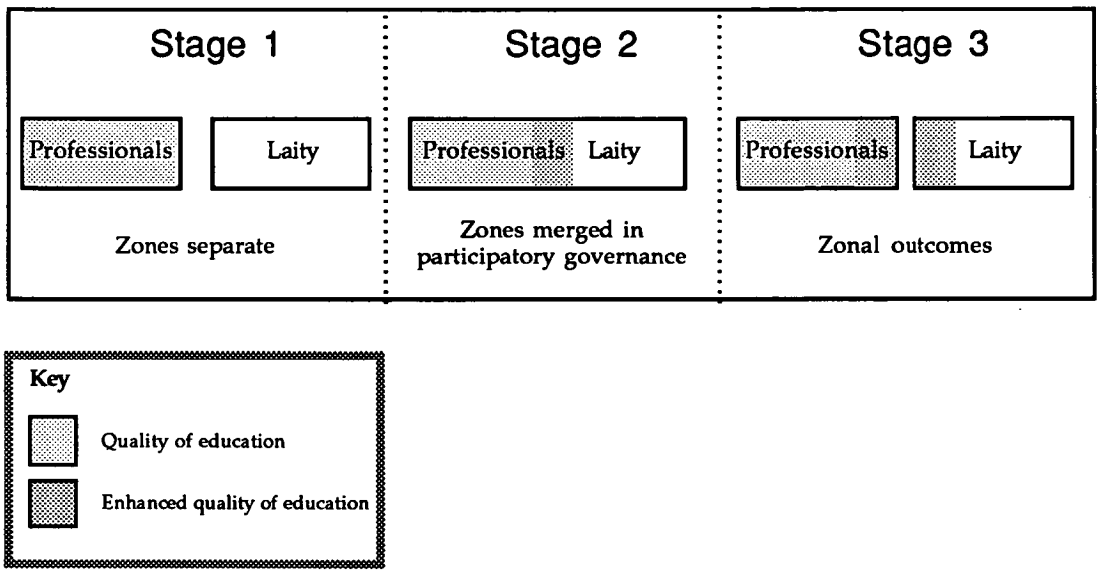
dependence of administration on the meanings and purposes that individuals bring to it from the wider society (Greenfield, 1968:3), and decentralisation objectives that a broad spectrum of community members should be engaged in participatory governance, a critical issue would appear to be the status of professionalism *vis a vis* amateurism. Evidence from related literature, and from the Case Records and the Case Studies indicates a situation where these are often regarded as two inviolable zones of influence on student outcomes.

Relevant questions as to how a part-time amateur can hope to govern the full-time specialist meaningfully, and how governing bodies can accommodate the expert and the non-expert, the employed worker and the unpaid but interested community participant, have already been asked by Kogan *et al.* (1984:71). Their research findings about governing bodies indicate unequal distribution of power, professional grip on information and knowledge, frustrations for laypersons who are professionals in their own right (sometimes former teachers), constraints of procedures, and criticism tempered by dependency on client/consumer status of parent governors. Yet they reach a conclusion that governing bodies are an important forum for the mediation of interests (Kogan *et al.*, 1984:92). It is the view of Kogan *et al.* that the laity cannot hope to fully understand or control all the activities for which it is responsible in a governance capacity, so is forced to rely on the expertise of professionals. Their view is that governors, in turn, expect to be informed, to present their own interests, to comment, and to react to the professionals.

While the research of Kogan *et al.* (1984) predates the maximum extent of a devolutionary trend that has since developed, as outlined, those findings are far from irrelevant still, especially the notion of governance being a forum for mediation of interests. However, the findings of the macro and meso level inquiry of this present study indicate a preferable scenario for the zones of influence. It envisages maximising the potential of the laity by adequate empowerment for participatory governance. In that way, collaboration with professionals to make policy will become a more evenly balanced coalition. This would preserve the intrinsic contribution that each zone can make to the other. Such a scenario is depicted in Figure 13. Stage 1 shows the zones as distinct and separate, quality of education being the sole prerogative of the professional. At Stage 2, the two zones merge in a coalition for the purpose of participatory governance. Outcomes of this fusion are seen at Stage 3: enhanced quality of education which is 'owned' by both zones eventuating from the administrative function of governance when both are engaged as partners.

The zonal fusion brought about by participatory governance allows for professional educators in an institution to benefit from the contribution of the community, and the laity to comprehend concerns of the institution, thereby enhancing the quality of education in it as the two zones collaborate.

Figure 13. **Scenario for coalition of professional and lay zones to enhance quality**



Commentary on findings (H3Q3)

An hypothesis that a prime motivation for school-site government is the contribution it can make to enhancing educational quality is central to this study. Findings have been outlined on what may be the constituents of quality, administrative function, and participatory governance.

The quality of schooling appears to be influenced not only on the achievement of learning and teaching outcomes but also on administrative conditions that facilitate it. Enhanced quality of education outcomes may be realised through administration by participatory governance which provides a forum for mediation of interests, policy making apposite to institutional concerns, policy makers with requisite skills and values, and an intermediary facility that also acts as protection against external interference or precariousness.

H4Q4: The practice of participatory governance in schools

	Hypothesis		Question
H4.	Participants' attributes and administrative procedures determine beneficial policy outcomes for self-governing institutions.	Q4.	To what extent do participants' attributes and administrative procedures contribute to school governors' performance?

Major factors manifest in the pattern, processes and politics of a devolutionary trend have been interpreted and translated into key issues to be examined during participant observation of the actual performance, procedures and policies evident in three examples

of practice. Only one of the case study samples, a non-government school, can be seen as distinctively self-governing. This sample is not irrelevant to the extent that the trend shows as simulating the privatisation model. The deliberations of the Board in Case Study 2 may be expected to educe that model. The other two case studies of participatory governance are useful as illustrations not only of procedural variations in the decentralised administration, but also of the impact which human attributes have on organisations such as learning institutions. Findings from the three case studies are summarised to address the fourth pair of research hypotheses and questions (H4Q4) with exemplification of the practice of self-government.

Performance

There are underlying values, beliefs, philosophies and ideologies to any worthwhile human endeavour, particularly one as intensely human as education. In the case studies, these are expressed in verbalised, visual and behavioural ways as the ethos of individual learning institutions. Expression of ethos symbolises the uniqueness of each school. Effective participation of community members in performing their administrative function is predicated on recognition and understanding of the particular ethos. The professional 'performers' have been identified as those from the internal personnel of the institution. Those from the external environment, the laity of the school community, have been seen to include not only parents but others who have a relationship with the institution. An allegiance established by virtue of being a former student, parent, or staff member of an institution is personal, meaningful, and found to be motivational. The 'old school tie' network of British Public School may be maligned but, in this connection, it can prove to be a valuable human resource for community participation in governance in any system.

Other stakeholders in a learning institution have been identified in the course of the study. These have included local business and industry representatives, and co-opted members of the community with particularly appropriate skills, such as journalists, architects, lawyers, with the will to serve theirr community through participatory governance.

The ways in which administrative performance is required to change, particularly in recent years by political and bureaucratic fiat, have exerted stress on educational systems. None is at precisely the same point in devolutionary practice of administration. Similarly, each institution within any system is at its own particular point in an educational life-cycle. Again, recognition of where that point may be is critical for governing bodies. They are required to be self-conscious, to take stock not only of their institution but also of their organisation of it, if they are to perform efficaciously. Reports to their community of governance performance should raise their profile within that community.

Social issues implicit in governance include those of human rights, gender equity, and equality of opportunity. It has been shown that these have been met with only varying degrees of success by the three sample institutions. Student participation in the affairs of governance (when they are sufficiently mature to do so) was found to be minimal or non-existent. Women were under-represented on governing bodies, significantly so in executive positions. Although disadvantage received attention in all three cases studied, the patriarchal and elitist image of an independent school model is something of a paradox in connection with justice issues. Redress of these concerns highlights the necessity for some external controls to be retained at the centralised level by a government system. This retention of authority is necessary as much to provide guidelines for local actions and to avoid parochialism as to allocate financial or expert human resources.

A common perception of educational quality seems to have taken for granted uniform outcomes from the service delivered by professional educators. Micro level findings with regard to individual institutions, however, identify this is not how it seems to be within them nowadays. The unique ethos implicit in each learning institution, and the collaboration of its community in ascertaining discrete purposes and concerns for a school, have been recognised in the devolutionary trend. There is a requirement for each school to develop its own mission statement. These 'charters', as they are often called, are intended to encapsulate the ethos and quality peculiar to each school. They form guides for the instructional leadership internally and administration by community governance externally. In this way, an identifiable standard may be set for each institution: its desired quality of education may be enunciated for the public at any given time as the outcome of its total educational environment. In Case Study 2, this had already occurred. In both the other case studies, it was in train.

In summary, when considering election, nomination or co-option to a governing body, would-be participants should understand that governors perform effectively when they

- comprehend the ethos of the institution,
- assist from time to time in determining desired quality to be achieved,
- have values congruent with those of the school,
- have a personal allegiance to the school, and
- review their collective performance, and report, regularly.

Procedures

To perform governance, it is necessary to have the powers, time, skill and will to do it. Very little, if any, remuneration is attached to community participation in governance. It became increasingly obvious as the period of participant observation progressed that only one of the institutions was a case of actual school-site administration. The other two

governing bodies were limited to advisory, approval or promotional powers. Important though these are for governing bodies, more appears to be called for in devolutionary times if an objective of desired educational quality is to be attained by their deliberations.

Methods of reaching decisions in the three case studies showed variation which could be attributed to underlying philosophies in each institution. The thrust of lobbying tactics pervaded the proceedings of the community college council. Unity in consensus was a *raison d'etre* for the independent school board. Confidence by the participants in the collaboration of Principal and President appeared to have carriage of determinations made by the vocational training institute's council. However, conventional business-meeting protocol is in place for all three governing bodies to perform administrative tasks when the occasion arises. Democratic procedures were in evidence for prior discussion, and formal ratification, by all participants in the decisions made.

The time required to expedite the administrative tasks of participatory governance has been demonstrated as considerable. As the tasks proliferate with decentralisation, time may be expected to increase exponentially.

A spread of expertise and mental talents is called for to enable policy making procedures to be effective. In conjunction with the P3M3 taxonomy of administration, Hodgkinson (1981:147) utilises de Bono's typology for special cognitive skills, styles and orientations applicable to policy makers. Hodgkinson asserts that certain types of people are necessary to successful administration. In practice, it may be difficult for any governing body to mobilise broad representation of these types. Nevertheless, to ignore the necessity for breadth of talent, expertise and experience is obviously detrimental to the efficacy of a governing body's performance. It seems improbable that any one school principal would have all the attributes necessary for administration, that is, in addition to instructional leadership. A collective of good and right people would seem to be desirable if administration is to be performed efficaciously.

In the Case Study 1, a sparsity of attributes, such as idea generation, appeared to contribute to inertia in council procedures. The span of talent on the governing body in Case Study 2, and the appropriate skills on the council in Case Study 3 predisposed a productive performance in both cases. Although in this study it has been regarded as intrusive to designate skills in each case study to specific persons, indications of occupational experience - legal, medical, architectural, commercial, financial, industrial, and so on - have been given to denote some predispositions and expertise contingent on breadth of interests. Whether those persons are the right people, or just good people, or just the people who happen, or want, to be participants in governance, is open to conjecture in each organisation. It is notable in the case studies that most of the participants' occupations have a strong service orientation of one kind or another. It seems inevitable

that those executives would contribute from their own professional expertise and human experience to governance.

Apart from the contribution of the principal as the leading professional educator on a governing body, the qualifications and qualities of the leading lay member of a governing body, its chairman, are seen as critical to participatory governance. In the Case Records and the Case Studies, a range of persons with specific talents were identified as being chairpersons of governing bodies, among them was a real estate agent, a university professor, a retired airline executive, a judge, an accountant. The relationship between the lay leader and the educational leader has been mentioned as a significant one. The role for the professional leader and the lay leader is particularly critical at the point of connection between the two stages, policy making by the external personnel and policy implementation by the internal personnel.

It has been decided by the researcher as beyond the scope of this study to attribute particular belief systems, value types, or cognitive correlates to actual individual participants in governance at the micro-level of inquiry. The reason was that it could be regarded as an unethical and intrusive activity in the light of the trust and acceptance established in the participant observation phase. Nonetheless, awareness of the nature of people is found to be a pre-condition for effective procedures.

Social interaction, both formal and informal, and inter-communication, both verbal and printed, have been found requisite to achievement of procedural efficiency. In short, for procedures to be efficient it is seen as necessary that:

- powers are clearly set down in constitutions,
- a realistic concept of time constraints is envisaged,
- a breadth of skills and experience is available for carriage of decisions, and
- opportunities for interaction and communication be fully utilised.

Policies

Although formal decisions were made during the period of participant observation, requirements for effective policy making were not met adequately by any of the three governing bodies studied. None had handbooks of procedure, or policy manuals. However, minutes of business meetings in each case were of sufficient detail to detect policy. In the absence of documented policy, communication of formal decisions to the internal implementers in the institution (professional staff) was either verbal, from the principal, or through promotional material publicised for the whole community. Despite these shortcomings, there was evidence that all three bodies made decisions which supported the internal environment of the school, responded to either expressed or foreseen needs of the school community, also that they interacted and communicated with the internal environment of the institution, both personally and collectively.

The need for philosophically based, jargon-free policy documentation to guide the deliberations of school-site management is strongly recommended. Availability of such policy documents in locations covered by the macro and meso inquiry was seen to be useful to communities where school-site government was firmly in place. Realisation of this has already happened in Case Study 2 with some progress being made in developing policy guidelines and handbooks.

Commentary on findings (H4Q4)

The uniqueness and desired quality of individual schools is being recognised. Strategies are being developed to facilitate wider participation in administration. Provided powers are clearly enunciated, sufficient time is allowed for the enactment of business, and for interaction between personnel from the internal and external environment, the values, beliefs, skills, mental talents and human experience of participants can be seen to bring a galaxy of attributes to school-site governance to determine policy.

H5Q5: Indications of policy outcomes that enhance quality

Hypothesis	Question
H5. Policy made by local community participants in governance positively influences the quality of educational outcomes.	Q5. What indications can be given that decisions made by participatory governance influence the quality outcomes?

How the policies that are adopted by participatory governance can be seen to contribute to quality outcomes for students is the subject of the fifth pair of research hypotheses and question. Relevant findings from the micro level of inquiry indicate the ways by which this may occur, but these are predicated on three concepts related also to macro and meso level findings from this study of governance. These are:

1. a concept of evaluation of administrative function by the selection of criteria that can be measured to give performance indicators
2. a concept of educational administration by participatory government on individual school sites; the degree to which it is empowered and exercised
3. a concept of educational quality as 'desired quality' in particular institutions that has been reached by consensual means, is clearly enunciated and periodically evaluated.

Each of these concepts is addressed in turn in order to discern how policy adopted by school-site government may influence outcomes of quality.

1. Performance indicators of policy outcomes

It has been found at the micro level that procedural matters of governance business can occupy an excessive amount of time at the expense of broader educational concerns.

However, the greater proportion of policy making by governing bodies appears to consist of financial, resources and planning, curricular and welfare matters. Findings from participant observation of the governing body of a non-government school have been used to ascertain whether, firstly, the process of participatory governance is delivering an end result which is as good as it can be; secondly, decisions are clearly identifiable and capable of realisation; and thirdly, the policies are achieving the prime objectives of the institution.

Although assessment of quality outcomes is not new, the acceleration in recent years of consumerism about products and services has reached community consciousness about education, particularly administration of it. As a consequence, where local communities have been formally entrusted with major responsibility for policy making it follows that there may be an expectation of accountability for effective discharge of the administrative function.

Accountability measures proposed by Dror (1973) and Scheerens (1990) have been utilised as indicators of quality of education. These allowed for value judgments to be made about policy outcomes from school-site government. As Case Study 2 exemplifies the notion of self-government, criteria have been measured to gauge the support and response to the concerns of instructional leadership offered by the policies adopted in that institution. The key issue of communication has been shown as critical to the achievement of objectives within a school.

It may be deduced from these findings that policies that demonstrate support for, response to, and communication within the total educational environment of a learning institution are likely to enhance quality. The ways that this is likely to occur are briefly stated for each of the three areas.

SUPPORT

In carrying part of the weight of the task of schooling, governing bodies strengthen instructional leadership through

- recognition of tasks performed by instructional leadership;
- awareness of, and empathy with, underlying philosophy of school; and
- pastoral care of school community - students, staff, parents, governors.

RESPONSE

In answering the range of needs discovered or made known to them, governing bodies make a response to

- employees needs for financial provision;
- health, safety and order requirements;
- institutional needs for human or material resources; and
- alleviation of disadvantage - student handicap, discrimination.

COMMUNICATION

In holding formal intercourse with professional educators, laypersons from the immediate community of institutions establish relationships which contribute to mutual trust and confidence between both zones of influence which impact on student outcomes. The extent of communication may be demonstrated by

- formal and informal personal interaction, while observing proprieties;
- well-written and updated policies;
- clearly enunciated short and long term planning; and
- informative publications about the primary purpose of the institution.

2. Areas of influence for local policy makers

Problems with straightforward approaches to performance indicators using primary criteria are diffused, fortuitously for the context of this governance study, by Scheerens' (1990:62) discernment of a relationship between classroom or learning level and the "superstructure [of the organisation] protecting the core process against disturbances and external uncertainty". In each case study there is evidence that the governing body is fulfilling this over-arching protective function. It is apparent, especially in the two institutions under State government control, that frequent calls are made on their councils to act as intermediary between the professionals and the employing authority to address resource needs felt by staff, students or the particular community. The non-government Board is the employing authority, but external factors - national superannuation schemes, award restructuring, Federal and State funding, changes in credentialling systems - have considerable impact on its deliberations. This Board fulfils an important role in reassuring its employees with regard to conditions of employment, and in areas such as professional development and appraisal. Health, safety and order provision for students and staff is another area in which local policy makers may have a controlling interest.

Disturbance and uncertainty caused by rapid devolutionary moves by politicians have been witnessed in the Case Records. They demonstrate the need for a buffer between institutions and extraneous authorities. Governing bodies can fulfil this function. Within Australia, disturbance caused by changes in political agenda, in curriculum or in credentialling at State or Federal level may become matters with which school-site governance will be increasingly concerned if the patterns observable in Britain and New Zealand are followed. Such a situation may be expected to arise, given the shared heritage and the devolutionary trend in educational administration.

Findings at the three school sites show that proaction by local policy makers has initiated strategic planning and major fund-raising exercises, innovations such as a crêche

or public use of library and sports facilities. The status of governors has added weight to formal expressions of affirmation for student or staff success or achievement.

It may be extrapolated from the evidence of the three case studies then, that the influence which policies adopted by local participants in governance exert on the total educational environment lies in:

- protection of core processes of learning and teaching,
- actions to mediate between the school and outside agencies,
- proaction in arrangements to improve facilities, and
- affirmation of staff and students.

Perhaps the most important influence which participatory governance, empowered to the maximum extent, has on a school is the appointment of a principal and staff. Choice of a professional leader appropriate to the requirements of a particular institution appears to be significant to outcomes from the internal environment of a learning institution. Similarly, the choice of chairman for the governing body can prove to be an influence on its effectiveness. The contribution of each leader would appear to be critical to outcomes of quality from participatory governance.

3. Outcomes of quality

Responsibility by governing bodies to oversee their institution's curricular aims and objectives (within national guidelines) is mandatory in England and Wales and New Zealand. However, these broader concerns identified at the macro level of inquiry have application at the micro-level, too. The non-government school, charged in its constitution with "all the school's affairs", apparently administers by delegation to the professional educators almost all curricular matters. The potential for collaboration in this category of business does not appear to be availed of. Yet, it cannot be said that the Board is unaware of curricular issues. It was the prime mover in the recent major strategic planning exercise which identified the purpose and concerns of the school, its desired quality.

According to the evidence of the case studies, control information upon which to base decisions is supplied by the internal management team of professional educators. During this study attention has continually been drawn to the totality of an individual school's environment through the device of a contextual model to illustrate educational quality (see Figure 9, page 161). School effectiveness as a global concept has been advised by Rutter *et al.* in England, and Goodlad in the United States. Their message is that enhancement of quality is not exclusively the business of professional educators. "We have suggested that there is a causal relationship between school process and children's progress" write Rutter *et al.* (1979:180), to which can be added the prescription of Goodlad (1984:31) for a school to be seen as a unit of itself so "efforts of improvement must encompass the school as a system of interacting parts, each affecting the others".

To quantify outcomes of quality from particular parts of the institutional environment may appear to be a somewhat artificial exercise. Nevertheless, consciousness of the need to evaluate quality, not only in terms of student academic achievement or professional appraisal but also attainment of administrative objectives, seems to be a reasonable exercise for clarification of attainment of beneficial outcomes from participatory governance. Findings, derived from a version of performance indicators used for the purposes of this study, point to outcomes of quality being dependent on:

- attaining desired quality in the learning institution,
- taking account of all the contributory factors to the total educational environment of a school, and
- being conscious of the need to evaluate performance at all levels.

Commentary on findings (H5Q5)

It is evident that appropriately empowered policy makers from the local community of a school can make decisions based on the educational information received, but also on their own initiatives. Indicators from three case studies, one in some detail, give evidence of enhanced quality of educational outcomes resulting from formal decision making. Based on that evidence, it may be expected that there is a relationship between what occurs at the micro level and that of meso and macro levels of decision making in educational administration when it is devolved to participatory governance of individual learning institutions.

Chapter 14

Review and Recommendations

The objective of this research into school governance has been to discern the influence collective decision making has on educational quality. This final chapter reviews the problem that has been investigated in this study. Processes involved in achieving the research purpose are surveyed and substantiation of the findings is briefly recapitulated. Emergent issues and insights from the research are identified before recommending pre-conditions for governance. A paradigm of participatory governance, to be understood by those sectors of the community implicated in the process, is postulated. Some speculations into the directions of a devolutionary trend in educational administration, with possibilities for future research, are discussed prior to concluding with observations on contributions to knowledge from this research.

Achieving the research purpose

The thesis was aggregated into five sequential sections to achieve the purpose set for the research into school governance. In Section 1, the governance study was introduced, related literature was reviewed and the methodology was explained. A problem was seen to lie in presumption that formal collaboration of laypersons with professional educators is an effective method of governing a learning institution. Effectiveness was taken to mean that policies made by such a coalition may enhance quality of education. The problem to be investigated was generated by a perceived need to broaden the range of decision makers in the administration of learning institutions. To open up public schooling to more informed community perceptions seemed to the researcher to be a necessary reform. What was the potential of community participants to perform school-site government? Acquaintance with local initiatives that could be typified as community participation in the administrative function (in an Australian State with a history of firm central control of public education) suggested comparison with putative practice interstate and internationally where a devolutionary trend seemed to be more advanced.

A first projection was to study local sites of governance and proceed to the wider scene. However, experience as a long-time participant in three distinctively different versions of governing bodies, as well as investigation of the idiosyncratic Rosebery model of self-management in Tasmanian State system, brought realisation that community participation was extremely varied even within one small island state. It appeared necessary to gain an overview of school-site government before attempting to exemplify

school governance as a way in which communities could be seen to formally contribute to educational quality.

The non-local investigation is described in Section 2. Three stages of inquiry were devised to enable a logical sequence of fieldwork to proceed. These stages were termed macro, meso and micro levels of inquiry to differentiate the international or macro stage of observation in the United States, Scotland, Ireland, England, Canada and New Zealand; the meso level observation of Australian States, Victoria, New South Wales and Tasmania; and the micro state of case studies in the locality of Hobart, Tasmania. The macro and meso levels have been described in Case Records in this second section. Outcomes from participant observation at the micro level are given as Case Studies in Section 4. Evidence from the inquiry was expected to range from general to particular, from extensive to intensive, from an international scene to a local one. The sampling parameters were drawn within a boundary of countries which shared the British heritage which Australia does. It was foreseen that, in the course of the inquiry, a contextual definition of educational quality could be developed. In these ways it was hoped to make gradual sense of the social phenomenon of participatory governance before undertaking the micro level inquiry.

The multi-dimensional concept of educational quality has been given a central place in the thesis (Section 3). Two critical issues have been addressed by the study into governance. One has been the capability of a coalition of professionals and laity to make policy collaboratively for a self-governing institution. The other has been the capacity of policy made by that coalition to enhance the quality of education in a school. What has emerged from the theory and practice cited in this study is that, while the internal environment of a learning institution directly affects student outcomes, the external environment, especially the immediate environmental factor of an empowered governing body, contributes to the totality of outcomes from a school in an important, though less direct, way. Whereas the internal domain of learning and teaching remains almost exclusively the province of professional educators, the same could not be said for the proximate external environment occupied by a governing body. In short, the total school environment of any learning institution is a significant criterion when it comes to assessing the quality of outcomes. It was proposed (Section 3) that a governing body's knowledge of the internal effectiveness factors is necessary for making policy which may influence and enhance that quality.

Section 4 is concerned with the micro level of inquiry about which case studies have been written. Major factors in the devolutionary trend were deduced from the Case Records; that is, from analysis of the patterns, processes and politics recorded at the macro and meso levels of inquiry. Key issues were interpreted from those major factors with which to underpin participant observation of three samples of institutional governance in one locality. The Case Studies (Chapter 11) describe the performance, procedures and policies

as observed during a six-month episode of participant observation of three governing bodies. Inferences were drawn from analysis of both the Case Records (Chapter 7) and the Case Studies (Chapter 12). In the latter, performance indicators of policy outcomes were identified, and samples of effectiveness were given in some detail in one case.

Section 5 comprises the conclusions, overview and recommendations derived from the preceding four sections.

Studying governance

There is a hazard that being engrossed in the problem can lead to a view that exaggerates its importance. However, the area of research has proved to be one that continues to attract widespread attention. The problem of how to administer schooling with the objective of attaining education of quality still appears to be significant for those concerned with the organisation of educational services.

A naturalistic stance (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was seen as an appropriate choice for pursuing this investigation into governance. This was confirmed by using qualitative data collection methods (Miles & Huberman, 1984), although some quasi-statistical evidence and some formalised assessment techniques were utilised to arrive at indicators of quality.

It was a constraint having only one pass at macro and meso locations. Endeavours were made to supplement deficiencies with further reading and correspondence with informants *in situ* where necessary. During the micro level inquiry there was ample opportunity to check and confirm data and to triangulate findings with evidence from macro and meso data.

The methodology was dependent on the lone researcher as instrument and the personal judgement of that person. It was sometimes difficult to divorce claims as participant and observer. It was easier to glide towards solipsism, a condition it was deliberately proposed to avoid. A determined search for meaning was the original and continuing aspiration of the researcher to achieve understanding of another's spoken information. Nevertheless, interpretation is undeniably subjective. Guarding against bias or prejudice was a preoccupation.

Meaningful relationship between words and deeds proved to be as difficult a task to align in practical terms as had been indicated in the literature (Deutscher, 1973). During the inquiry, rhetoric was readily expressed to the researcher on 'shared decision-making', or 'partnership with community'. In documentation, too, meanings were frequently ambiguous. For instance, expressions about students as 'independent learners' were common in school mission statements. What exactly is meant? Does the community relate to such concepts? The presence of ambiguity and jargon pointed to the necessity for clear information and careful interpretation so there can be comprehension of purposes at every level of the educational process, for professional and layperson alike. Evidence of actions to bear out the words was sought.

As in another study, (Macbeth *et al.*, 1980), the business allocated as the province of administration by governing bodies has been categorised. Categories of concerns analysed in this present study have been designated in areas of procedural, financial, resources and planning, curricular and welfare matters.

Use of 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) had been foreshadowed. The caution that it can be merely anecdotal was guarded against by systematising the findings of macro and meso inquiry into a Case Record of each location. At the micro level, key issues have been identified as yardsticks for investigation in three Case Studies. Nevertheless, these Case Records or Case Studies are not expected to depict a universal formal order; human organisation does not present that way. There is seldom a 'correct answer' to problems that are embedded in thoughtways of culture (Stouffer, 1950:355). Locations were found to have their own ways of operation at any given time.

During the course of the study it became apparent that, in locations where school-site government is mandatory, there was continuous monitoring and modification. In locations where central bureaucratic control persisted, active consideration was being given to implementing variations of self-management practices. In short, there appeared to be an accelerating and widespread devolutionary trend in educational administration. A combination of published research findings and constant media attention during this time tended to confirm that, although participatory governance was indeed a contemporary issue, firm assertions about it could not hold for any length of time in any location. This could be attributed to the speed of change and developments in restructuring.

Substantiating practice with theory and research

An initial literature review revealed elements of the problem to be: decentralisation, governance, policy making, and educational quality. Other theoretical perspectives took hold as the data collection and concurrent analyses progressed. These changed some emphases, and brought others to the fore. Notable among these were the relevance of organisational theories, the concept of a total school environment, distinct zones of influence of professional educators and 'amateur' laypersons who formed the coalition that is a governing body, and the notion of desired quality for a learning institution. Each perspective is now summarised in turn.

Relevance of organisational theories

A trend to decentralise policy making to school-site administration brought into contention organisational theories. The progression of methods for imposing order in organisations from Weberian ideal bureaucracy to processes of participatory governance in individual schools is considerable. Recognition of human agency (Greenfield, 1973) in the carriage of policy, together with postulation that administration is philosophy-in-action (Hodgkinson, 1983), appeared to have contemporary application to processes at any level

of management. These were apposite to the concerns of this study because of correlations with human values, beliefs, ideologies and the realities and pragmatics of administration for those charged with school governance.

Throughout this study into the self-governing aspects of school organisation, using the term 'administration' (Hodgkinson, 1983) although the function in Australia has also been called 'school-site management' (Caldwell & Spinks, 1988), the subject matter has been the cooperation necessary for the arrangement and function of governing bodies. The objective of the investigation has been to gauge their efficacy, efficiency, and effectiveness. Administration has been taken to refer to the organisation of people and means about purposes or ends about which Hodgkinson (1983:2) found that "the means may be technological and superlatively complex ... the ends may be diverse, subtle, obscure and infinite". The 'means' in this study is participatory governance, the 'ends' are policies. Theoretical bases for both have been indicated (Section 3) and explored (Section 4).

A concept of total school environment

Although the boundaries of the study were locations congruent with Australia, literature on explicit outcomes from effective schools stems, in large part, from the United States of America. Prior definition of a primary objective of schooling as one of learning ('instruction' in the American usage of Purkey & Smith, 1985) has guided the purposes of this study. The effective schools movement has elaborated upon this goal to the extent that schools are seen to have specific objectives which can be tested. Those objectives are identified by Chrispeels & Pollack (1990) as the "effectiveness factors" of safety and order, high expectations, recognition and reward, home-school relations, academic focus, frequent monitoring, time on task, use of test results, staff development, curriculum alignment, shared decision making, collaborative problem solving, and channels for frequent communication. Furthermore, Chrispeels & Pollack (1990) subsumed these objectives under the term 'instructional leadership of principal and teachers'. As such, they comprise the internal part of the school environment depicted in the model of educational quality designed for the purposes of this study (see Figure 9, page 161). This contextual model also indicates the social, cultural, and political forces of the external environment which are seen to impact on student outcomes. Those forces are purported to coalesce in a governing body. Linkages between the governing body and the instructional leadership are shown to be the support, response and communication available through a coalition of professional and laypersons in participatory governance. These two environmental sectors, internal and external, make their combined contributions to a total school environment through a governing body.

Perceptions of distinct zones of influence

Underlying the problem of this study has been consideration of two zones of influence on student outcomes. The zones are comprised of professionals and the laity.

'Border incidents' within and between zones of influence (Gross, Mason, McEachern, 1966; Auld, 1976; Peshkin, 1982; Gronn, 1984; Carspecken, 1987) appear from media reports to be still episodical in England and, in reports from incidents considered by Community Forums, in New Zealand. They were not readily apparent at the micro level of case studies from evidence gained during the time-frame of inquiry. However, the fact that human values are of the essence in organisations lends credence to the reality that there exists a potential for such confrontations. In the conclusive analysis from the macro and meso levels, the significance to decentralisation of professional grip on many aspects of education and its administration was evident. Coalition denotes a balanced partnership. An unequal balance was often apparent. Mandate and regulatory strategies are called for if that 'provider-capture' to which Macpherson (1989) alludes, is to be released.

A notion of desired quality

Developing a comprehensive definition for quality in this study has tended to corroborate an opinion (Hughes, 1988) that educational quality is an elusive, diffuse idea. It avoids being as neatly pinned down to criteria, standards and outcomes as might be convenient for those who wish to administer schools with a centralised prescription emanating from monolithic control. Nor is quality an amorphous remedy for all the ills perceived with schooling.

Identification of outcomes in terms of enhanced quality leads to a conclusion that they are largely dependent on definitions of educational quality in particular institutions. In real terms, a useful gauge of standards of quality is the concept of 'desired quality' (Dror, 1973). This concept can be applied to each institution. The quality that is desired has to be determined, to be made known, and to be understood by each school's community. It follows that participation of members of the community in making decisions which could influence the quality they desire has much to recommend it. That different preparation is required for different outcomes to occur, that different institutions have their own unique ways of preparing students (Hughes, 1988:7), are views which public and professionals alike may need to comprehend more fully than at present. The case studies demonstrated desired quality in the peculiar and distinctive purposes and concerns of three learning institutions. There is, nonetheless, a perceived difficulty in accommodating a range of views as to what quality might be in similar institutions (say in all government community colleges in one State). This may confirm a need for certain powers to be retained by central authorities, even in devolutionary times, to ensure quality control and some publicly comprehensible standards. On the other hand, differentiated curriculum provision in comparable institutions emphasises the unique quality provided in specific schools and already provides consumers of education with opportunity to make genuine choices.

Measurement has been undertaken of specific inputs and processes (Scheerens, 1990) to discern indications of quality outcomes in one of the case studies. The non-government

system's school was the chosen sample as it appears to be self-managing in the manner which government systems in England and New Zealand specify. Three main questions have been asked to determine achievement of desired quality: is the result as good as it can be? how effective are the decisions? and, are prime objectives being achieved? Answers appear to be dependent on identifying clearly the purpose and concerns of the institution, the calibre of personnel charged with governance, the effectiveness of procedures for decision-making, and the clarity and utility of the policy that is adopted. Accountability for their performance as governors, assessment of procedures, and evaluation of policy outcomes has not been evident during the participant observation phase of this inquiry. Monitoring and reporting back to the wider community are practices seen as beneficial in some Case Records.

Substantiation of the findings from theory and research leads to identification of issues and insights into self-government in schools.

Issues and insights

Among issues emergent from this research it is plain that school governance is not primarily about curricular matters. It is about administrative concerns - resources, planning, welfare - upon which curriculum delivery is dependent. Teaching and learning have been given as the core processes of a school. Provision for them is the prerogative of professional educators. It has been an hypothesis of this study that the quality of that educational provision requires additional skills and talents for making policy. Professional educators' knowledge and capability, when combined with the broader range of expertise and human experience that laypersons from a school community can contribute, makes for participatory governance which may enhance educational quality.

The case studies illustrated the degrees by which desired quality in individual learning institutions may be attained. The presence of exemplary instructional leadership in the internal environment, combined with an effective coalition of professionals and laity (from the external environment) making policies, contribute to quality outcomes. The contiguous external environment, embodied as councils or boards, can be shown to enhance the quality of provision made by the internal environment. The result is the sum total of a school's contribution to effective outcomes for students.

Ideally, indicators of attaining a total quality in a school could be demonstrated through evaluation of certain criteria. Instructional leadership may be evaluated through assessment of academic or skill attainment and staff appraisal. The contribution of participatory governance may be gauged through measures of performance, procedures, and policies. Findings from participant observation of three learning institutions indicate a fairly limited contribution to educational quality from the council of a senior secondary college (Case Study 1). Considerably more appears to be contributed by the council of a vocational training institute (Case Study 3) for it has a clearly defined 'desired quality' of

outcome for its enterprise. The non-government school's board of governors (Case Study 2) demonstrates through its policy making quite substantial realisation of the potential which participatory governance has to influence quality in a school.

Analysis of these samples of practice has identified that the capacity of policies to influence educational quality depends on the capability of a coalition of professionals and laity to perform the administrative task of school-site government. From evidence provided in the case studies, it is possible to deduce elements of capability and capacity.

The capability of a coalition to self-govern may be discerned through:

- understanding ethos and underlying philosophies of particular institution;
- taking advantage of local community stakeholders' range of skills and human experience;
- obtaining relevant control information upon which to make decisions;
- being adequately empowered for administrative action;
- considering pragmatics, including time requirements; numbers and membership;
- protecting core processes of teaching and learning against disturbance and uncertainty through concern for welfare of whole school community;
- acting as a forum for the mediation of interests and
- communicating and interacting.

The capacity of policy to enhance educational quality may be gauged as:

- exemplifying the values and beliefs of the institution;
- foreseeing discretionary action;
- being supportive and responsive;
- articulating clearly; disseminating widely and
- attaining desired outcomes.

Recommending pre-conditions for school-site government

Emergent issues from theory, research, and evidence of practice, have proved to be insightful as to what might comprise a model of governance practice at the beginning of the 90s. There would appear to be three major concerns contingent on effective school-site government. The first concerns awareness of the people in the society which is to be served. The second concerns acceptance of the integrity of the community culture. The third concerns establishment of appropriate procedures for school administration. Certain particulars seem to be subsumed under those concerns as critical pre-conditions for school-site government performed by community participants.

1. Awareness of the nature of people and the needs of society through:
    - values: common or unique;
    - vision for education: national and local;
    - underlying social justice principles;
    - philosophical basis for particular administrative action;

- common factors in effective learning institutions;
- goals of great worth in each institution;
- specification of good resource provision on each site, human and material; and
- potential of widespread contribution from deliverers and consumers of education, who include professional bureaucrats and teachers, students, parents, employers, and other community stakeholders.

2. Acceptance of community and cultural integrity through:
   - alteration of balance of power between providers and clients to raise satisfaction levels;
   - participation of persons, not just involvement or representation;
   - differentiation of roles; political, professional and community
     a) authority for a system: government (politicians); central office (bureaucrats)
     b) local providers of education: professional educators
     c) local consumers of education: students, parents, community stakeholders;
   - leadership linchpins: Principal and Chairman; and
   - collaboration realised as a reciprocal benefit.
3. Establishment of appropriate procedures through:
   - clearly defined powers to make policy, includes power to appoint staff for its implementation;
   - adequate time-frames to perform governance tasks;
   - criteria for competence on councils; breadth of expertise and experience;
   - relevant information and training; and
   - communication of policies and feedback mechanisms.

Postulating a paradigm for participatory governance of schools

Recommendations of pre-conditions for a model of self-government in schools lead to realisation of the potential which local community participation in policy making may have to influence educational quality. It may be expected that comprehension of participatory governance is different for specific groups of people concerned about educational administration. Those groups appear to fall into four sectors: first, authorities for systems of education (politicians, central office executives); second, professional educators; third, community stakeholders in schooling (laypersons); fourth, participants in administration of schools (members of governing bodies). There appears to be a need for those in each group to be in agreement about fundamental issues in practice of self-government. For beneficial outcomes to result from participatory governance the following understandings appear to be significant for each sector. They can be seen to form a paradigm for participatory governance of schools in that there would be agreement by:

1. politicians and central office executives in understanding that
   - leadership provides a major impetus to change, restructure, revitalise;
   - restructuring may require implementation at the national level. State initiatives may be too diffuse for public acceptance of decentralisation;

- some powers - perhaps curriculum, credentialling, basic budget allocation - may need to be retained centrally for some time in the interests of equity;
- it is a community right to participate in making policy for a local school;
- community members may be entrusted with school governance in the way democratically elected representatives are entrusted with national government;
- legislation needs to be enacted to adequately empower participants to act autonomously in administering individual schools;
- guidelines to implement decentralisation must be detailed and unambiguous; and
- changes require regular monitoring and modification at all levels.

2. professional educators in understanding that
   - administration of education is a function separate from teaching and learning,
   - participatory governance need not threaten either the status of the teaching profession or educational principles if it is appropriately structured,
   - clarification of purposes for governing bodies opens up the somewhat closed world of school to outside viewpoints,
   - educational information is supplied to policy makers by educators,
   - evaluation and appraisal of professional performance needs to be undertaken,
   - desired quality for the particular institution needs to be established, and
   - communication skills are required to engage with the community.
3. laypersons in a school community in understanding that
   - opportunity is presented to influence educational outcomes by policy making,
   - consumers of education need to be prepared to accept responsibility for decision making,
   - individual schools and individual stakeholders make a difference, and
   - all skills and human experiences (including students') can be drawn upon to complement those of professional educators in administration of schools.
4. participants in governing bodies in understanding that
   - participatory governance is a formal commitment to the school, not to individual children nor to forward a personal concern;
   - time and energy is required for the commitment;
   - curricular issues are not pre-eminent in administrative business;
   - documentary evidence of procedures is important: handbooks, policy manuals; and
   - regular evaluation of performance, procedure and policies is required for community accountability.

Speculating on devolution of decision making

In the course of the study, there have been some negative findings about devolving decision making to local communities. In particular, perceptions of excessive speed of change have been mentioned, also the apathy of communities to respond. The possibility that agencies other than school-site governing bodies might better represent community interests at the local level, has been raised. Alternative organisational structures - paid councils for clusters of schools, regional offices with officials and co-opted local identities, even an extended version of the Parents and Citizens Associations - are among those

suggested. Within Australia, a study (Sturman, 1989) of the extent to which decentralisation in practice has occurred, and its effect on curriculum, touched on these issues. The research findings of Sturman (1989:240) indicate that the community may influence '"in a rather subtle and indirect way", but that teachers attached little importance to the community as a source of authority (Sturman, 1989:217).

Critics' forewarnings of an inability of participatory governance to impact on learning and teaching do not appear to take account of the true potential which appropriately empowered governing bodies may have to influence quality. This governance study's findings have identified the proximate and personal contribution of a local community, not as providers of learning and teaching, but as essential contributors to those core processes through their support, response and communication. That school boards do make a difference to students' cognitive achievement by their "intensive communication", is confirmed by Hofman (1992:19) from his research in Holland. He finds their decision making role can be "a more fruitful contribution to the effectiveness of their school if it is carried out together with the members of their school".

As this thesis concludes, research and public media continue to focus on the widespread reorganisation of educational administration. Its new and unexpected directions are commented upon by Harman *et al.*, (1991). Disquiet about "ongoing destructive political interference" (Harman *et al.*, 1991:303) and the increasing questioning of the authority of professional expertise leads to their conclusion that the locus of control for educational administration has not only shifted but has been lost by professionals. The "inexorable drift" which Harman *et al.*, (1991:310) perceive in administration of Australian public school systems towards private business structures, referred to by Beare (1991:21) as the 'privatisation syndrome', is a theme now strongly advocated in the United States (Chubb & Moe, 1990; Finn C.E, 1991). In that country, the problem with educational quality has developed into one of schooling choices available to the community. In short, an American solution is autonomy for schools with market forces in operation and no bureaucratic regulation. In England, too, the philosophy of Chubb & Moe (1992) has had exposure through its public media. Their analysis of the British system (post-Reform Act 1988) provided readers of *The Sunday Times* (9 February 1992) with a "vital blueprint to plan the education of their children". Here again, Chubb & Moe (1992:22) "embrace choice as the most promising path to better schools". They foresee the ability to choose from a broad selection of truly self-governing schools as the radical reform needed for education. That way, "school quality is in the hands of teachers, school heads and governing boards" (Chubb & Moe, 1992:24). However, they discount the market force mechanism as an analogy by their recommendation that "it is a government's job to design a framework within which school autonomy may flourish". Herein may lie the future of devolved decision making.

Such a situation actually pertains in the non-government system, as exemplified in Case Study 2. The school is largely free of bureaucratic control and, to use the words of Finn

C. E. (1991:8), there actually is "a clear consumer orientation to the people who receive the consumer products". How politicians may frame a public system to simulate this model is a challenge for educational administration. It also opens a rich seam for educational research.

Proposing future research

Throughout the study, suggestions have been signalled about aspects of educational administration which might be fruitful avenues for further research. Some possibilities are listed in the following:

- effects of cultural, historiographic, demographic and sociological factors on community perceptions of educational administration of schools;
- principals' contribution to collaboration on governing bodies;
- chairpersons' influence on the outcomes of governing bodies - and schools;
- more direct impact of communities on the internal environment of schools;
- content of information required by governing bodies upon which to make decisions;
- students' contribution to governance;
- alternative ways that communities can formally contribute to a learning institution's policy decisions;
- longitudinal case studies of empowered governance, as in England, New Zealand or Victoria;
- behavioural studies of the impact that minutiae of governance procedures - tone of voice, manner of interruption, verbal contributions - may make on resultant policy;
- investigation of the impact of teacher unionism on governance; and
- multiple indicators of improved quality outcomes from governance.

Gaining trustworthy knowledge

The knowledge and information gained during this inquiry speaks for places that share the British cultural heritage. Attitudes and values in the chosen locations are expected to have been shaped by historical, geographical or demographic similarities. The study has been bounded within parameters that are predominantly white, middle-class, articulate and urban communities.

This leads to a fundamental question as to the trustworthiness of the knowledge of governance acquired by a lone researcher into educational administration at this particular time. How credible, dependable, confirmable or transferable are the findings in view of the progressive trend towards devolution? Epistemological considerations have to be taken into account as arbiters. The empirical approach of putting queries as to the nature of a problem and letting natural events answer them, is in the naturalistic paradigm. There are several aliases for this stance, namely ethnography, phenomenology, hermeneutics, qualitative, post-positivistic, or humanistic research. Outcomes using such epistemologies can be case studies or field studies, as in this sample of research into governance. The researcher's

values and experiential perspectives may be seen to determine in some measure the choice of such outcomes.

The multiple realities which were encountered have been analysed with the intention of providing a coherent explanation of the potential of participatory governance, and the influence that policy emanating from it may have to enhance educational quality. These phenomena may be understood only within the relationship to the time and the context which have been described. As was foreseen in the methodology for the study (Chapter 3), the findings contribute essentially conjectural knowledge. Trustworthiness of the human instrument has to be read into the credence placed by the reader on those descriptions.

Variations within the sample have been noted as embedded information uncovered in the process of observation and interview, particularly during the participant observation phase. The choice of categories for major factors and key issues in the Case Records and Case Studies, and the effectiveness factors for quality, are expected to suggest transferability. Details of persistent observation are offered as measures of reliability. A strong contribution to the reliability of data is expected by triangulation from the three points of the inquiry; macro, meso and micro locations. Orientation from widespread to localised inquiry, the focussed exploration, and the checking of findings is offered with assurance of fidelity to facts. Continuous reassessment, as in definition of educational quality, and re-evaluation, as in 'gatekeepers' reactions to findings, has been followed. Trust in the findings of the cases recorded and the cases studied can only be surmised in relation to the epistemological extent that they are in harmony with the reader's experience and beliefs.

A search for reality and truth, and a search for meaning and relationships persisted throughout this study. The search for reality and truth has tested hypotheses made from reasonable predictions to discover objectified facts and make coherent explanations of them. The search for meaning and relationships has been concerned with images of activities through which the researcher and, subsequently, the reader, could interpret the living experiences described.

Final commentary

Some final remarks on the elusive idea of quality in education should be made. Quality is a perception in the mind's eye of the beholder. The beholder recognises and appreciates an objective. Beholders of education perceive its quality as attainment of desired learning outcomes. Contributions to the effective schools vary, consequently those outcomes vary. Where the beholders are local community participants in governance, as in the context of this study, recognition and appreciation of the quality objectives for their particular self-governing learning institution comes within their prerogative. Suitably empowered, and performing efficaciously, it is probable such governing bodies will enhance the quality of education on location by their formal decision making. In a proximate and

personal sense, the administrative weight governors assist in carrying, the range of needs that they meet, and the extent of intercourse in which they engage, presents a real probability of unique support, response and communication for a school from its community. This is unavailable to distant bureaucratic controllers with immutable prescriptions for educational administration. Governing bodies in learning institutions may not obviate the need for central authority to administer over-arching concerns. They can provide, however, a valuable influence which is being adapted constructively, or is being seriously considered as a way forward, in public education systems in many locations. It seems that the eyes of beholders of education are beginning to open to a new dawn in educational administration as the twenty-first century approaches.

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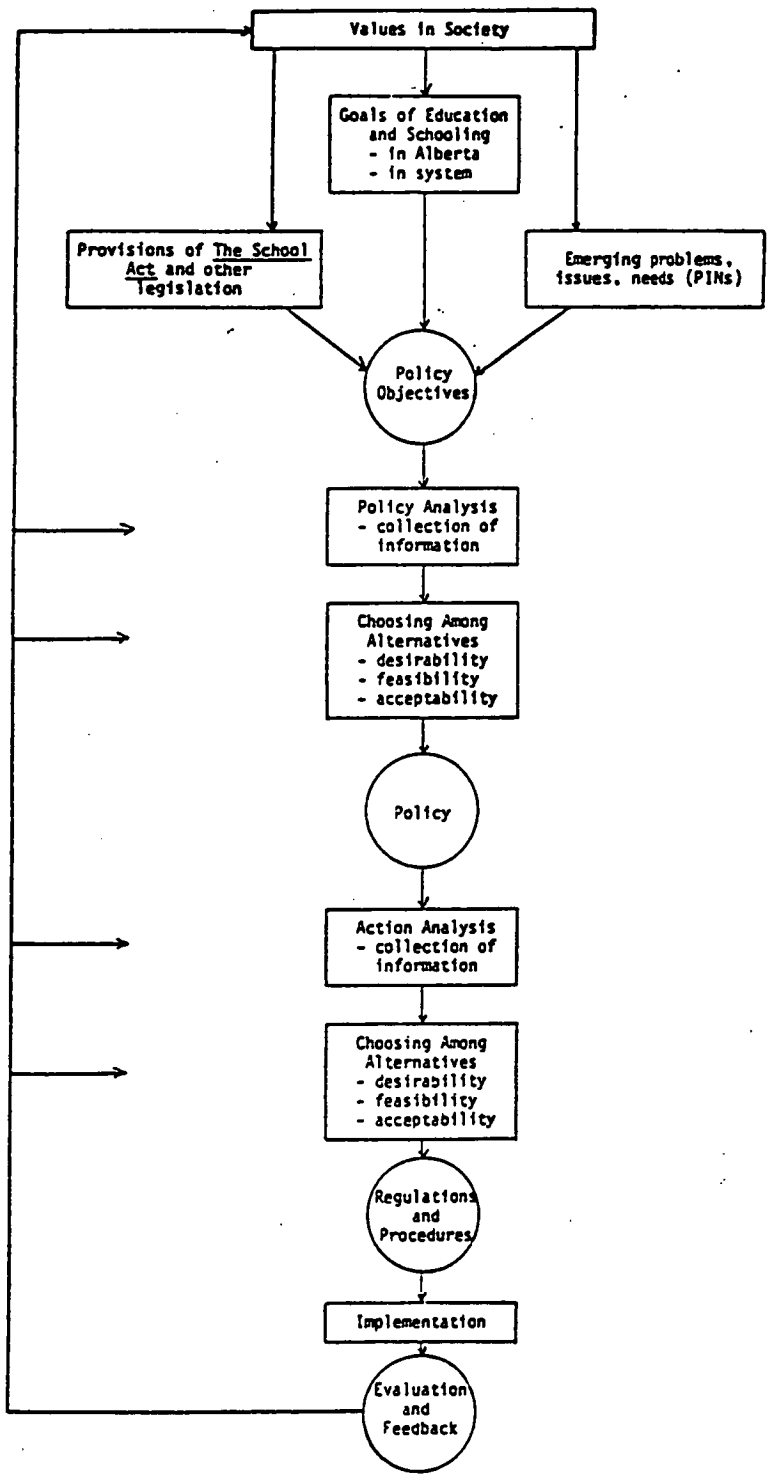
APPENDIX 1

Policy making model. (Caldwell & Tymko, 1980: 89)



A Model for Choice

APPENDIX 1.1

Policy Making (Caldwell & Tymko, 1980: 40)

POLICY ON POLICY MAKING

The board believes that it must assume the responsibility for the establishment of the broad goals of education for the school system and develop appropriate policies designed to realize these goals.

The board further believes that it should:

1. Include an amount of money in the budget to finance whatever additional expense will be required to support its policy making process.

2. Promote the use of a sound decision making framework whenever and wherever appropriate.

3. Encourage participation of interested groups and individuals at certain stages in the policy making process.

4. Delegate to its staff the necessary authority to develop programs for the implementation of policy.

5. Make specific arrangements for evaluation and feedback relative to established policies and programs so that policies can be continuously under review for revision or deletion, if necessary.

Policy on Policy Making: An Example

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APPENDIX 2.1

5th October 1989

Professor John Welton
Wheatley Campus
Wheatley Oxford OX9 IHX
U.K.

Dear John Welton

Your letter to my PhD Supervisor, Dr Brian Caldwell, has been passed on to me. I am most appreciative of its welcoming tone, and am replying to your query as to my plans when in England next year.

My study on the efficacy of school governance in which the local community is involved takes two forms. Firstly, a participant observation component, based on my council membership of three educational institutions here, which traces the policies made at the local level to improved outcomes for students in those localities. Secondly, research on the broader background of decentralised administration of education which is evident in many countries as well as Australia. In that connection, I have chosen to visit New Zealand, Canada and the United Kingdom during four months next year.

At present I envisage arriving in England in June. I plan to inquire into the position in your country at this post-Taylor (and all the legislation which followed that Report) stage. In addition, I hope to investigate a community setting which has similar demographic characteristics to those of Hobart, to observe the quality of education there.

It would be very helpful to me to meet with you, as you kindly suggest, and to receive suggestions as to an English location which might assist my search for positive samples of effective schooling which benefit from community participation in its organisational decision-making.

As I am to be the representative of Australia Yearly Meeting of the Society of Friends in New Zealand Y.M. at Easter next year, I will spend a month in that country doing my research. I have not contacted Canada Y.M. yet but have a colleague at University of Victoria, B.C. where I would like to pursue inquiry during May 1990. There is a possibility that my application to attend the Quaker Women and Theology Conference at Woodbrook in July may be successful. So you can see I am taking advantage of my cherished membership of our Society to further my spiritual and educational concerns.

Thank you for the interest you have indicated to Dr Brian Caldwell. I look forward to hearing from you myself.

Sincerely, in Friendship

Sheila Given

Sheila Given.

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APPENDIX 2.2

20 January 1990

Dear Dr Martin-Newcombe

Your name has been given to me by a mutual colleague, Dr Carey Denholm, who is sharing my office in the Centre for Education at present. As an associate professor from your university, he is visiting his homeland and pursuing research with handicapped children here and, recently, in Israel.

My own work is in educational administration as research assistant to the Dean of Education, Dr Brian Caldwell, who is also supervising my PhD. I am writing to you with regard to research in connection with my doctoral thesis.

I attach a copy of a brief overview of my study together with some biographical details.

I hope to visit British Columbia during my inquiry into school governance. Plans are in place for that to occur during May this year.

I would be most grateful if you would consider helping me with introductions to local Canadian educators or administrators from whom I might collect data for my study.

Any assistance would be much appreciated by me. I would value meeting you.

Yours sincerely,

Sheila Given

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APPENDIX 2.3

1 April 1990

Dr Yvonne Martin
Faculty of Education
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P.O. Box 1700, Victoria B.C.
Canada V8W 2Y2

Dear Dr Martin

Thank you very much for your letter which arrived yesterday. I hasten to reply because I am about to leave on the first leg of my research itinerary, New Zealand, and would like to tell you of my plans to visit at your University.

I am so pleased that you have kindly agreed to meet me and offered such positive help in my inquiry into school governance procedures in Canada. Having read the British Columbia Royal Commission on Education (1986) and supporting papers (1988), I would like to be informed about the aftermath of 1989 legislation and how it has translated into practice in which school community members (both professional *and* lay) participate in policy making in learning institutions - at elementary, secondary or vocational training levels of education. Meeting with the M.A. student you mentioned would be useful, I am sure. I am keen to look at the processes of decision making which occur close to the point of delivery of educational programs. In particular, I want to inquire into those policies which are intended to support leadership and the teaching and learning policies rather than the financial and resource considerations which are the responsibility of schools' boards, too. I wonder if it is possible to arrange for me to meet with any members of school councils or central administrators of education?

I have read Christopher Hodgkinson's work and greatly value it.

I feel certain that educational administration in British Columbia will be of great interest to me. Thank you again for your help. I am looking forward to meeting you.

Yours sincerely

Sheila Given.

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APPENDIX 2.4

15th October, 1990

Dear Colin Wendell Smith

As you know, I am a doctoral candidate at the Centre for Education. My research is in the area of educational administration and my thesis is on the topic of the efficacy of school governance.

I enclose a brief outline of my study. You will see that a significant part of it concerns a Tasmanian sample of community involvement in policy making for educational institutions. I hope to draw on my experience on boards/councils in the Hobart locality. A particular focus is the non-government model of self-managing schools.

In order to collect data for my study, I would wish, at the outset, to obtain your permission to pursue research at The Friends School. I would like to function for a short time as participant observer of decision-making by the Executive Committee of the Board of Governors and to have access to documents which may be appropriate. It is my hope that I can pursue this part of my investigation during the last three months of 1990 and the first three months of the school year 1991. It should not detract from my contribution to the Board. I would like your approval to interview individual members of the Executive Committee, to request their cooperation in keeping a simple record of time devoted to School business during the time under review, and to complete a short Performance Rating form at the end of my personal interview with them.

You have my assurance that any information which I gain and may wish to use in my thesis will be submitted to relevant persons whom you nominate so that any amendments may be made. In this way, a measure of control over the data which has been contributed can be kept by the Board. I would appreciate your opinion as to the necessity to confer anonymity upon the school in my thesis. I will abide by your decision in any of these matters.

Copies of this letter are being sent to the Presiding Member of the Executive Committee, Peter Underwood, and to the Co-Principals, Stephanie and Lyndsay Farrall, so that all may be aware of implications of the fieldwork in my research.

Few participant observation studies have been made in this field. My supervisor, Dr Brian Caldwell, expressed the view that my findings on school governance at the micro-level of local practice, related to those at the macro-level of international developments where the trend is towards devolution of decision-making from central bureaucracy to individual institutions, will contribute to theory in educational management.

Yours sincerely

Sheila Given

Sheila Given.

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APPENDIX 2.5

16th October, 1990

Dear Judy Bromfield

As you know, I am a Postgraduate, PhD. student at the Centre for Education. My research is in the area of educational administration. I attach a brief outline of my study. You will see that a significant part of it concerns a Tasmanian sample of community involvement in decision-making for educational institutions. I hope to draw on my experience on boards/councils in Hobart. I greatly value my opportunity to serve on Elizabeth College Council and would like to use this experience in my study.

So I write to ask your permission to pursue research at Elizabeth College for a short period at the end of this year. It would entail participant observation of the last two Council Meetings of this year, a request to members of the Council for personal interviews, their cooperation in keeping a simple record of the time they devote to College business and in completing a rating form at the end of each interview.

You have my assurance that any information which I gain and may wish to use in my thesis will be submitted to you so that any amendments may be made.

A copy of this letter will be forwarded to Bruce Poulson so that he may discern any implications of this fieldwork and advise you accordingly.

Few studies have been made in this field. My former supervisor, Dr Brian Caldwell, expressed the view that my findings should contribute to theory in educational management. Therefore, I hope this inquiry meets with your approval as the work of our Council offers an interesting model of community participation.

Yours sincerely

Sheila Given

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APPENDIX 2.6

12th November, 1990

Dear Sieneke Martin

As a researcher into educational administration at this University, I am engaged in a doctoral study of governance of learning institutions. This year, I have made inquiries for this purpose at the international level; visiting New Zealand, North America and the United Kingdom, also interstate, in Victoria and New South Wales. I am presently pursuing a participant observation study of three school/college councils in Hobart. My supervisor has been Dr Brian Caldwell, now of the University of Melbourne.

I am writing to ask if the Council of Hobart College would allow me to observe one of your meetings. To me, such a visit would be extremely helpful as a measure of generalising the findings of my research. One focus of my present work is the practice and procedures of Elizabeth College Council.

I can reassure you that any information which I would gain from observation of your Council would be treated as confidential. If I wished to use any of it explicitly in my thesis, I would submit it for your scrutiny, and amendment if necessary, before including it in such a document.

I trust that the Council and Principal of Hobart College would look favourably on my request to be a note-taking observer at any one Council meeting which might be nominated.

Yours sincerely

Sheila Given

Sheila Given.

University of Tasmania

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APPENDIX 2.7

16th October, 1990

Dear Spencer Logue

As you know, I am a Postgraduate, PhD. student at the Centre for Education. My research is in the area of educational administration. I attach a brief outline of my study. You will see that a significant part of it concerns a Tasmanian sample of community involvement in decision-making for educational institutions. I hope to draw on my experience on boards/councils in Hobart. I greatly value my opportunity to serve on the Tasmanian College of Hospitality Council and would like to use this experience in my study.

So I write to ask your permission to pursue research at Drysdale for a short period at the end of this year. It would entail participant observation of the last Council Meeting of this year, a request to members of the Council for personal interviews, their cooperation in keeping a simple record of the time they devote to College business and in completing a rating form at the end of each interview.

You have my assurance that any information which I gain and may wish to use in my thesis will be submitted to you so that any amendments may be made.

A copy of this letter will be forwarded to Kip Muller so that he may discern any implications of this fieldwork and advise you accordingly.

Few studies have been made in this field. My former supervisor, Dr Brian Caldwell, expressed the view that my findings should contribute to theory in educational management. Therefore, I hope this inquiry meets with your approval as the work of our Council offers an interesting model of community participation.

Yours sincerely

Sheila Given

Sheila Given.

APPENDIX 2.8

OUTLINE OF STUDY

THE AIM OF THE STUDY IS TO GAUGE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY MAKING IN WHICH LOCAL COMMUNITIES OF INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS PARTICIPATE.

THE FOCAL ISSUE TO BE INVESTIGATED IS THE PRESENT PRACTICE OF SCHOOL GOVERNING BODIES. INITIALLY, THE RESEARCHER PROPOSES TO INQUIRE INTO DECENTRALISED EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION TO DISCERN THE PURPOSES ENVISAGED FOR DEVOLVED DECISION MAKING. INQUIRY IS TO BE UNDERTAKEN IN CANADA, THE UNITED STATES, SCOTLAND, ENGLAND, IRELAND, AND THREE STATES OF AUSTRALIA: NEW SOUTH WALES, VICTORIA, AND TASMANIA.

THE INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL PERSPECTIVES THUS GAINED WILL PROVIDE BENCHMARKS FOR PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION OF THREE SCHOOL-SITE GOVERNING BODIES IN HOBART, TASMANIA.

THE FINDINGS FROM THE LOCAL LEVEL ARE EXPECTED TO RELATE TO THE WIDER SCENE FORM WHICH THE KEY ISSUES TO BE RESEARCHED HAVE BEEN DERIVED.

APPENDIX 2.9

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

Explanation at first Council/Board Meeting, before beginning participant observation phase:

This exercise is a small section of a study into school governance. Participant Observation is a method of collecting information. It involves observations of an organisation in which I, as researcher, am also participant. The aim is to gain specific information about how we function as a council/board

Noted will be what decisions we make, how we make them, what is done to implement the policies which result from our deliberations. It is hoped that the proceedings will be as normal as possible. I would hope to observe the last three Council/Board Meetings this year and the first three next year. I will just be taking notes throughout the Meeting but hope to play my normal, average part as wel l.

Request will be made to each member to complete a record of time spent on Council/Board business this year. A letter explaining what is required, with a Record Sheet at the back has been prepared for each member. There is a stamped addressed envelope for each reply.

During the next few months I will be asking members for a personal interview to clarify points I have noted about Council/Board Meetings.

By next March, each member wiil be asked to fill in a brief Rating Form as a quick assessment of how they see the Council/Board has performed during the previous year.

The objective of the study is to discern the effectiveness of governing bodies such as ours to perform the role envisaged for them.

APPENDIX 3.1

GUIDELINES FOR INQUIRY

CONSTRUCT	DEFINITION	INQUIRY ELEMENT	INQUIRY POINT	INQUIRY TASK
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION	The organisation, process and procedures to enable effective education to proceed Planning, control	Centralised/decent -tralised patterns at national,state, and local levels Self-management models, Legal sanctions,Change, Regulations	A macro level	FIND OUT levels of responsibility designated in each country OBTAIN documents WRITE UP proforma ANALYSE data NOTE basic belief
COMMUNITY	Social context Those concerned with part, schools Culture,demography	Students, parents, professionals, laypersons,Industry Commerce, unions Higher education	B,C meso micro levels	INDICATE specifics SES, Level of part, SEEK perceptions LOCATE documents WRITE up sites ANALYSE data
SCHOOL GOVERNANCE SCHOOL GOVERNORS	Administrative process for a school Participants in formal proceedings of admin,	Politics;power Collective decision making, group skills Individual expertise attitudes,motivations Conflict/consensus	B,C meso, micro level	DISCERN meanings OBSERVE procedure ANALYSE data IDENTIFY strengths WRITE UP DETAIL part,obs,
POLICY	Formal decisions Guidelines for action	Practice, Papers Policy for Negotiation Dissemination	A,B,C, macro, meso, micro	EXEMPLIFY OBTAIN documents INDICATE activities RECORD samples ANALYSES
QUALITY OF EDUCATION	Degrees of meeting objectives Educational outcomes students	School ethos, mission, instructional leadership, Relationship home/school/community Indicators	B,C meso, micro, level	INVESTIGATe EVALUATE community contribution DRAFT case studies MEASURE outcomes ANALYSE,REDUCE, DISPLAY,VERIFY

APPENDIX 3.2

ACTION CHECKLIST

At (B) meso level inquiry stage of data collection:

Sites: Learning institutions - Primary
- Secondary
- Vocational training
- Other (name _____)

Person:_____

CHECK	
	1. Make arrangements to visit - letters of introduction/phone - explanation of study
	2. Have Fieldwork Guide to hand
	3. Do Interview
	4. Make brief notes during interview
	5. Give assurance of sight of any information to be used in thesis
	6. Obtain relevant documents - eg Board Handbook
	7. Ask for recommendations of specific persons to visit; permission/make appointments where appropriate
	8. Request completion of RATING SCALE IF BOARD MEMBER
	9. Express thanks - also <u>write</u> afterwards if appropriate
	10. Write up interview notes immediately
	11. TELEPHONE INTERVIEWS WITH SUGGESTED INFORMANTS IF SITE HAS NOT YIELDED SUFFICIENT IN FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEWS
	12. Devote time to completing Fieldwork Forms <u>soon</u> afterwards
	13. Fill in Personal Audit
	14. Arrange visits as suggested at this site
	15. Post documentation home
	16. Follow up leads from this contact

APPENDIX 3.3

ACTION CHECKLIST

At (A) macro level inquiry stage of data collection:
Possible sites: State Education Department
University Education faculty (Ed.Admin.)
Other Higher Education sites
Personal contacts

CHECK	
	1. Make arrangements to visit - letters of introduction - phone beforehand - explanation of study
	2. Have Fieldwork Guide to hand
	3. Do Interview
	4. Make brief notes during interview
	5. Give assurance of sight of any information to be used in thesis
	6. Obtain relevant documents - Policies, Statements etc.
	7. Ask for recommendations of specific locations to visit; permission/make appointments where appropriate
	8. Express thanks - also write afterwards if appropriate
	9. Write up interview notes immediately
	10. Devote time to completing Fieldwork Forms soon afterwards
	11. Do preliminary analysis of data collected
	12. Fill in Personal Audit
	13. Arrange visits as suggested at this site
	14. Post documentation home
	15. Follow up leads from this contact

APPENDIX 3.4

LOCATIONS Data Collection

(A) Macro level collection points:

Auckland
Wellington
Vancouver
London
Oxford
Dublin
Melbourne
Sydney

(B) Meso level collection points:

LOCATION	POPULATION	UNIVERSITY
Christchurch	299,393	Caterbury
Dunedin	92,520	Otago
Victoria, BC	255,547	Victoria
Providence,Rhode Island	156,804	Brown
Exeter, England	91,938	Exeter
York, England	99,910	York
Aberdeen,Scotland	203,927	Aberdeen
Cork,Eire	68,090	University College
Geelong, Victoria	93,817	Deakin
Wollongong, NSW	174, 620	Wollongong

(C) Micro level collection point:

HOBART	127,140	Tasmania

Micro level sites:

HOBART Elizabeth College Council
Friends' School Board of Governors
Tasmanian College of Hospitality Council

APPENDIX 3. 5.1

INTERVIEW QUESTION GUIDE (A)

A (macro level research)

Preamble: ***"In this location (country/State/centre)"***

QUESTION ELEMENT	TYPICAL QUESTION
	General Questions (G)
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION	Is the researcher's understanding (as given briefly) of devolution here an accurate one?
COMMUNITY	What is the extent of local community participation? Which locations are generally regarded as low/high SES?
	Specific Questions(S)
SUPPORT TEACHING LEARNING	Have there been any recent (5 years) changes in method of staff appointments (esp.Principals)? How is curriculum set for learning institutions? How are students formally tested at Primary/Secondary/Vocational stages? How is learning/teaching monitored?
DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE	Is there documentation on ed.admin as it might affect school communities (ie. for lay use)? If so, may I have copies?
SIGNIFICANT INDIVIDUALS ROLES	Are there significant roles in decentralised admin.? Are there outstanding individual contributors? What difficulties occur?
	Key Questions(K)
PERCEPTIONS POLITICS. POWER	Has there been any fundamental/major change of attitude to authoritative structures generally in governance of learning institutions here?
OBSERVABLE OUTCOMES STUDENTS	Is there a generally held view of quality education? Is there evidence of enhanced learning from community participation in policy making?

APPENDIX 3.5.2

INTERVIEW QUESTION GUIDE (B)

B (macro level research)

Preamble: ***In this learning institution:***

QUESTION ELEMENT	TYPICAL QUESTION
	General questions (G)
COMMUNITY	Ask about geographical;demography;SES;predominant values of setting. Ask about enrolment;gender/race equity;ethos;culture leadership density in institution.
	Specific questions (S)
COMMUNITY	What is the level pf formal community participation? How does the Board (note title) operate?
SUPPORT TEACHING LEARNING	What is the Board's level of support for: - leadership (eg. involvement in appointment)? - teaching quality?(perceptions of T.;expectations)? - learning outcomes? (academic recognition; home/school relations?
SIGNIFICANT INDIVIDUALS ROLES	Are there particularly significant people (professionals/laity) who might provide information? Can arrangements be made for researcher to meet them?
DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE	What documents on policy are available?
	Key questions(K)
PERCEPTIONS POLITICS POWER	Has there been any fundamental /major change (5y) of attitude to organisation of educational management?
OBSERVABLE OUTCOMES FOR STUDENTS	Is there a commonly held view of quality education? Is there evidence of enhanced learning from community participation in policy?

APPENDIX 3.5.3

INTERVIEW QUESTION GUIDE (C)

(C) (micro level research)

BOARD MEMBER

Preamble: *As a member (professional/lay) of this Board:*

QUESTION ELEMENT	TYPICAL QUESTION
	General (G)
COMMUNITY	How are Board members chosen/appointed?
	Specific (S)
ATTITUDES MOTIVATIONS	How do you regard your work/contribution to this Board? If need be, what can you do to change administration? What skills skills are required of a Board member?
DECISION MAKING	Can you describe how a typical policy decision is made? Are critical decisions for this institution made by B.?
SUPPORT FOR LEARNING TEACHING	How does the Board ensure that the Principal has developed a teaching/learning policy here? Support P.? What responsibility has the B. for staff development? What recommendations has the Board made about LTL?
ROLES	Are there job descriptions/ person specifications/ work agreeements to which the Board is party? Are there Board personnel policies? Advisory groups?
POLITICS POWER	Does personal politics/religion affect Board activity? In your opinion, does the Board exercise much power to effect change? Could you give examples?
	Key (k)
CHANGE	Has your view of education changed during B. membership? Can non-teachers change the way education is delivered?
OBSERVABLE OUTCOMES	Do you have a view of quality education? Have you observed enhanced learning as a result of this Council/Board's activity?

NB. The Rating Scale of Board Performance may be given to Board member informants at conclusion of interviews

APPENDIX 3.6.1

OBSERVATIONS (A)

(A) macro level

1. Cultural/heritage features:
   - Environment
   - Government - political affiliations
   - Industry, commerce
   - Arts. Craft
   - Higher Education facilities
   - Religious dimensions
   - Multicultural factors
   - Literary allusion - drama, novels, non-fiction.

2. Historical/Geographical/demographical features
   - British system - government, colonialism
   - SES
   - Education retention rates
   - Employment statistics
   - Island/coastal factors

3. Central Education Administration - powers (present, past, future). Legislation.

4. Documentation - communication to and from the centre

5 Student Outcomes - what people say, what they do
   Media comment - perceptions, 'people power'

6.

7.

APPENDIX 3.6.2

OBSERVATIONS (B)

(B) meso level

1. Cultural/heritage features: Site environs Ethos Values and beliefs Local community Response to dual cultural heritage Response to multicultural nature of society
2. Historical/Geographical/demographical features Local chronology Coastal communities Employment Retention rates SES Response to Higher Education
3. Decentralised Education Administration - powers (present, past. Specifics. Function of Board Contribution of individual skills (Professional/Lay) Leadership of Boards
4. Documentation - communication to and from the learning institution
5. Student Outcomes - what people say, what they do Local media comments Informal views/perceptions expressed
6.

APPENDIX 3.6.3

OBSERVATIONS (C)

micro level research

MEETING_____ DATE_____

POINTS	WORKING DEFINITION	QUESTION	
DECISION MAKING	Collaboration/conflict	HOW?	
CHANGE	Alteration process	WHY?	
TIME TIMING	On task, professional voluntary, envisaged	WHEN?	
ROLES	Division of tasks	WHICH? WHOSE?	
ATTITUDES	Participants'	WHICH?	
EXPERTISE SKILLS	Mental talents, attributes, requirements	WHOSE? WHICH?	
KNOWLEDGE INFORMATION	Available, called for, needed,	WHAT?	
COMMUNICATION	Manner, extent	HOW?	
RESPONSIVENESS TO CLIENTS	Specific evidence	WHAT?	
QUALITY OF EDUCATION	Reference to learning/ teaching students	HOW?	
DIFFICULTIES	Intended/unintended	WHICH	

APPENDIX 3.7.1

DOCUMENT SUMMARY FORM

SITE_____

DOCUMENT_____

DATE_____

Name/description of document
Connected with:
Summary of contents

APPENDIX 3.7.2

THE SITE SUMMARY

SITE_____

DATE_____

GEOGRAPHICAL SETTING
DEMOGRAPHY OF COMMUNITY
ORGANISATION - PERSONNEL, RELATIONSHIPS
CHRONOLOGY OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION
NETWORK OF VARIABLES ON THIS SITE
TIES TO PREVIOUS SITE/WORK/PREVIOUS UNDERSTANDINGS

APPENDIX 3.7.3

SITE ANALYSIS FORM

LOCATION_____

DATE_____

1. THEMES, IMPRESSIONS
2. EXPLANATIONS, SPECULATIONS, HYPOTHESES
3. ALTERNATIVE EXPLANATIONS, DISAGREEMENTS
4. NEXT STEPS FOR DATA COLLECTION
5. IMPLICATION FOR REVISION OR UPDATING

DATE OF ANALYSIS_____

APPENDIX 3.7.4

CONTACT SUMMARY FORM

DATE
_____ LOCATION_____

PERSON
THEMES,ISSUES
WHICH RESEARCH QUESTIONS WERE IN FOCUS?
ANY NEW HYPOTHESES OR SPECULATIONS?
WHAT NEW INFORMATION IS NEEDED?
WRITE? TELEPHONE?

APPENDIX 3.7.5

VITAL RESEARCH REMINDERS:

1. Biases and prejudices (researcher and researched)

2. Negative evidence

3. Assumptions of congruity

4. Access and trust-building

5. Creation, testing and revision of simple, practical and effective techniques for analysis of data collected

6. Emphasis on systematic methods for drawing conclusions

7. Search for meaning in *words* and *actions* of informants.

8. Indications of categories from which key concepts can be drawn

9. Awareness of new leads

10. Cognizance of conceptual framework; its adaptability and flexibility

page 4

PERSONAL AUDIT TRAIL

DATE----------
DATE----------
DATE----------

page 29

MEMO

on ideas [events, processes, outcomes]

DATE----------

STOP/WRITE IT DOWN

page 31

APPENDIX 4.1

RATE ACHIEVEMENT OF BOARD/COUNCIL IN PAST YEAR

Evaluation by member of the performance of school governance

[5 point scale]

IN ANSWER TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTION, PLEASE MARK [tick] YOUR CHOICE AT THE APPROPRIATE POINT FOR YOU ON THE SCALE BELOW

What is your view of the performance of the Governing Body during this year?

Satisfactory	----	----	----	----	----	Unsatisfactory
Effective	----	----	----	----	----	Ineffective
Improved	----	----	----	----	----	Deteriorated
Changed	----	----	----	----	----	Unchanged
Influential	----	----	----	----	----	Non-influential
Decisive	----	----	----	----	----	Indecisive

DATE_____

Thank you

APPENDIX 4.2

RATING GOVERNANCE PERFORMANCE

A simple evaluation of perceived achievement was requested at the end of the participant observation phase of the study. Each member, who was present at the conclusion of the final meeting of the six month period under scrutiny, was asked to complete the Rating Form [Appendix 4.1]. It took the form of a Likert-type scale of semantic differential, numbering 1-5, with 1 indicating the positive end of the scale. Members were asked to give their response to the question 'What is your view of the performance of the Board/Council this past year?' by marking (/), at the appropriate point on a five-point scale, their opinion of the governing body's performance. This was intended to indicate how satisfactory, effective, improved, changed, influential and decisive they perceived their Board/Council work during the year just finished. At each of the three sites, members present completed their individual Rating Forms at the same time on each occasion; the researcher as participant observer also filled in the form at that time. The aim of the exercise was to obtain an immediate individual response, rather than general discussion.

In determining the results of levels of performance, the five point scale is interpreted on the positive to negative continuum as being i)Highly/greatly, ii)Very/much, iii)Quite, iv)Seldom, v) Not at all. In some instances, no response was given. Those abstentions have been acknowledged in the findings.(n/r=no response). In reaching findings, a problem emerged with meaning attached to performance *Change*. This has been resolved by interpretation of *Change* as

positive where the other responses proved emphatically positive, but where the other responses indicated a definite negative in most other aspects, *Change* was taken to mean that the Board/Council's performance had deteriorated this year.

Rating results:

CASE STUDY 3	Highly	Very	Quite	Seldom	Not at all	n/r	Total
Satisfactory	6	6	1	-	-	1	14
Effective	6	5	3	-	-	-	14
Improved	2	3	5	1	-	3	14
Changed	1	4	3	2	2	2	14
Influential	6	2	3	1	1	1	14
Decisive	4	8	-	1	-	1	14
TOTALS	25	27	16	5	3	8	84

Comment on Case Study 3 findings:

Fourteen members (87.5%), of the membership of 18, completed the Rating Form on 20 March 1991. The majority of members favoured the highly positive end of the scale. This is unusual, as research literature on such scales indicates that many people tend to avoid the extremes.

In a total of 84 possible individual responses (14 members x 6 categories), only 3 registered at the extreme negative end, only 5 at the penultimate, so the total negative response was less than 10% of possible responses. Nearly 62% rated higher than the mid-point. 16 responses (19%)

indicated perceptions that the *status quo* in all five categories persisted during the year. Only 8 of the possible 84 choices of response were left unanswered (n/r=9.5%).

The overwhelming evidence from membership in Case Study 3 was that the performance of this Council had been satisfactory, effective, changed, influential, and decisive during the year. Over 85% assessed the Council's work as highly or very satisfactory, effective and decisive. Nearly 60% found it to be influential, while the assessment of change and improvement was more evenly distributed between those who thought Council had changed or improved and those who felt it had not.

There are some apparent ambiguities in individual assessments. For instance, one person thought the performance of council was seldom influential, yet viewed its performance as changed. Does this indicate that it was influential previously? Another person indicated that although the Council seldom changed, it had deteriorated. At the same time, he perceived it as highly influential, satisfactory and very effective and decisive. Yet another member commented at the end of the form that 'the possible inconsistency between these answers is the overiding factor of political circumstances'. Explanation of this was volunteered to the researcher by the member concerned; it was that many decisions made by Council depended for their implementation on State Authorities, which he saw as political forces outside, and over-riding, the control of the Council.

Nonetheless, a positive perception of the performance of Council over a period of one year was assessed by a representative sample of the membership

(77.7%). There is no reason to suspect that a higher percentage of completed forms would significantly alter the rating assessment results of this Council.

Rating results:

CASE STUDY 2	Highly	Very	Quite	Seldom	Not at all	n/r	Total
Satisfactory	5	7	1	-	-	1	14
Effective	5	6	2	1	-	-	14
Improved	6	5	3	-	-	-	14
Changed	1	6	4	-	-	3	14
Influential	5	6	2	1	-	1	14
Decisive	3	5	4	2	-	-	14
TOTALS	25	35	16	4	-	4	84

Comment on Case Study 2:

Fourteen members (93% of membership) completed the Ratings Form on 3 April 1990. One member chose not to fill it in as he had not been in attendance for the greater part of the year. The responses clearly indicated that the positive end of the scale was favoured, the findings correlate with the positive views of performance from Case Study 3, although Case study 2 members favoured the less extreme choices.

It was a coincidence that the same number of members responded in each of these governing bodies so there was the same 84 possible individual responses (14 members X 6 categories). Responses from Case Study 2 members was even

more conclusively positive than those of Case Study 3 because 71% regarded the performance here as being in the top two categories and less than 5% of the total responses were negative, as compared with 62% positive and 10% negative in Case Study 3. Coincidentally, the same figure (16 responses) gave a 19% response indication of a perception by those members that that *status quo* was maintained during the year. Only 4 of the possible 84 choices of response were left unanswered, half the number unanswered in Case Study 3 (n/r=4.8%).

As regards the small negative response, this was evident on only 3 Rating forms, 21% of the total membership. One member made a 60% negative response.

The evidence from its members based on this rating indicates considerable approbation (between 78.5% and 86%) for the satisfactory, effective, improved performance of this Board. Almost 60% of the responses found the performance to have been decisive. 50% noted change as having occurred, this *change* is interpreted as being regarded as for the better in this instance in the light of the positive responses in each category. However, the highest number of abstentions (some 21%) occurred at this point which could be read as a semantic difficulty already noted.

APPENDIX 4.2 page 6

Rating results:

CASE STUDY 1	Highly	Very	Quite	Seldom	Not at all	n/r	Total
Satisfactory	-	2	2	2	2	-	8
Effective	-	1	2	5	-	-	8
Improved	-	-	5	1	2	-	8
Changed	1	-	4	1	2	-	8
Influential	-	5	1	2	-	-	8
Decisive	-	4	1	1	2	-	8
TOTALS	1	12	15	12	8	-	48

Comment on Case Study 1:

Eight members (57%) completed the Rating Form at the meeting which marked the end of the period of participant observation, However that day, 10 April, coincided with the changeover of membership. This, combined with several unavoidable distubances at the time, resulted in confusion about filling in the form so the number of returns is consequently lower than for the other two governing bodies. It is probable that an increase in respondents would change the findings, but those who did complete the form were a cross section of the Case Study 1 membership: staff, parent and community representatives, though it did exclude the Principal and the student representatives (who serve only one year, and were new on this particular day).

Forty eight responses are therefore possible in this case. (8 members x 6 categories). There were no abstentions in responding as in the other two cases.

It can be seen from the findings that the responses are more evenly spread across the scale. It could be deduced from the responses that members feel that the Council plays an influential (62%) and decisive (50%) role, although 25% of the responses suggest that it is indecisive and is seldom influential.

Although 50% gave a mid-point response to *change*, interpretion of its meaning is taken in these findings to indicate that the change has negative connotations. The particular respondent who gave *Change* a high rating also gave the Council's performance as not at all satisfactory or decisive or improved, and seldom effective. 37.5% of the responses were that the Council had not changed for the better. The semantic problem may have contributed to this finding.

Compared with the clarity of significantly positive responses by members of the other two governing bodies, the more even distribution across the categories seems to indicate that those who responded do not evince the same general and immediate approbation of the performance of Case Study 1 during the year just ended. The circumstances of the day, with turnover of membership and consequent disorder, may have been factors in this, too. However, there was an air of optimism about the year ahead and the presence of newly-joined members who showed enthusiasm for the task. This could have made responses more positive than they might otherwise have been.

Comparisons of positive rating responses

Some comparisons may be drawn from these ratings of governance performance as perceived by participants in it. It is possible to deduce from the following table how positively members of the three governing bodies view their work. The percentages given indicate the aggregate of responses in each case at the positive end of the five point scale for five of the categories: Satisfaction, Effectiveness, Improvement, Influence, and Decisiveness. Due to the ambiguity noted in the category *Change*, it is omitted from these calculations.

	Satisfactory	Effective	Improved	Influential	Decisive
CASE STUDY 3	85.5%	78.5%	35.7%	57%	85.5%
CASE STUDY 2	85.5%	78.5%	78.5	78.5	57%
CASE STUDY 1	25%	12.5%	0%	62.5%	50%

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Sandy Bay Hobart
Correspondence
GPO Box 252C
Hobart Tasmania 7001
Australia
Telex AA 58150

APPENDIX 5.1.1

7 November 1990

To members of the Executive Committee of the Friends School Board

Dear

I am asking your assistance in my study of school governance. I hope that its findings may provide new and interesting information. At this stage I would like to find out how much time may be given by individual members in service to the School in their capacity as members of the Executive Committee.

While I realise that it may be difficult to calculate this precisely, I request you to complete the Record of Time (overleaf) for me. As you will see, the first part of it is an *estimation* of the number of hours you consider you may have spent this year on work consequent on your membership of the Executive Board. In estimating this you might include the time spent in sub-committees, attendance at official School functions (because you are a member of the Executive Board), Mid-Year Board Meeting, time on the Strategic Planning exercise (including sponsorship of the KRAs Working groups last January), or any other occasions you wish to include. All I am asking is an estimation of the total number of hours which you have voluntarily given to the Executive Committee this year. In order to be of assistance in making an approximate calculation of hours during 1990, the Record is divided into months with some relevant events noted to jog your memory!

The second part is a more precise record over a defined period, again it is a calculation of hours spent in performing your duties as an Executive Committee Member. I would appreciate your cooperation in filling in the sections for the weeks 1 November to 13 December. I attach a stamped addressed envelope for you to return the completed Form to me on December 13th 1990.

Thanking you in advance

Your Friend

Sheila Given

Sheila Given

University of Tasmania

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APPENDIX 5.1.2

8 November 1990

To members of Elizabeth College Council

Dear

I am asking for your assistance in my study of community participation in decision-making in educational institutions. I hope that its findings may provide new and interesting information. At this stage I would like to find out how much time may be given by individual members in service to Elizabeth College in their capacity as members of the College Council.

While I realise that it may be difficult to calculate this precisely, I request you to complete the Record of Time (overleaf) for me. As you will see, the first part of it is an *estimation* of the number of hours you consider you may have spent this year on work consequent on your membership of the College Council. In estimating this you might include the time spent in sub-committees, attendance at official College functions (because you are a member of the Council) or any other occasions you wish to include. All I am asking is an estimation of the total number of hours which you have voluntarily given to the College Council this year. In order to be of assistance in making an approximate calculation of hours during 1990, the Record is divided into months with some relevant events noted to jog your memory!

The second part is a more precise record over a defined period, again it is a calculation of hours spent in performing your duties as an ELizabeth College Council Member. I would appreciate your cooperation in filling in the sections for November and December. I attach a stamped addressed envelope for you to return the completed Form to me on December 5th 1990.

Thanking you in advance

Your fellow Council Member

Sheila Given

Sheila Given

University of Tasmania

Department of
Teacher Education
Telephone (002) 202546
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APPENDIX 5.1.3

To members of the Tasmanian College of Hospitality Co[illegible]l

Dear

I am asking for your assistance in my study of community participation in decision-making in educational institutions. I hope that its findings may provide new and interesting information. At this stage I would like to find out how much time may be given by individual members in service to the Tasmanian College of Hospitality in their capacity as members of the College Council.

While I realise that it may be difficult to calculate this precisely, I request you to complete the Record of Time (overleaf) for me. In estimating this, you might include the time spent attending official College functions (because you are a member of the Council) or any other tasks consequent on your representative role. All I am asking is an estimation of the total number of hours which you have voluntarily given to the College Council this year.
I would appreciate your cooperation in filling in the sections and giving a estimated total. I have noted the dates of Council meetings to jog your memory!

Attached is a stamped addressed envelope for you to return the completed Form to me on December 5th 1990.

Thanking you in advance

Your fellow Council Member

Sheila Given

APPENDIX 5.2.1

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE FRIENDS SCHOOL BOARD

****
RECORD OF TIME
****

Part 1

Please estimate the number of hours which you have spent on Board business for each month (Exec. Committee dates and some relevant events are noted as reminders)

Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sep	Oct
KRAs, AGM. YM, Child Care	14th 20th	6th 10th 11th Award P&F, AHIST AGM.	3rd P&F R.	1st P&F F/nce	26th P&F	Mid-Year 13th 14th 15th 31st P&F	NCIS, F/nce, Devel. Conf. 28th P&F	State Fund. Devel. Officer P&F	2nd Book L/ch Focus Fair
hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours

TOTAL = _____ hours estimated for January to end of October 1990

Part 2

Please calculate the hours you spend on Board business during the period 1st November to 12th December 1990 as accurately as possible

WEEK 1 1 Nov. -6 Nov.	WEEK 2 7 Nov. -13 Nov.	WEEK 3 14 Nov. -20 Nov.	WEEK 4 21 Nov. -27 Nov.	WEEK 5 28 Nov. - 4 Dec.	WEEK 6 5 Dec. -12 Dec.
hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours

TOTAL = _____ hours calculated for November and December 1990

************************ ON 13th DECEMBER ************************

Please send THE COMPLETED RECORD to Sheila Given in the stamped addressed envelope provided

****

APPENDIX 5.2.2

ELIZABETH COLLEGE COUNCIL

****
RECORD OF TIME
****

Part 1

Please estimate the number of hours which you have spent on Council business for each month in 1990 (Meeting dates and some relevant events are noted as reminders)

Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sep	Oct
		7th P&F AGM	4th Hostel	2nd	Bus R/Dev C/tee	4th Gym O/ing	1st	RMC PPW C/tee	3rd
hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours	hours

TOTAL = _____ hours estimated for March to end of October 1990

Part 2

Please calculate as accurately as possible the hours you spend on Council business during November and December

Period 1st November to 15th November	Period 16th November to 7th December
hours	hours

TOTAL = _____ hours calculated for November and December 1990

************************ ON 7th DECEMBER ************************

Please send THE COMPLETED RECORD to Sheila Given in the stamped addressed envelope provided

****

APPENDIX 5.2.3

Tasmanian College of Hospitality Council

****

RECORD OF TIME

****

Please estimate the number of hours which you have spent on Council business in 1990. - include social events in connection with your membership of TCOH Council. Meeting dates are noted as reminders but there may be other times when you have been engaged in Council business

---

NAME_____

Representative
of:_____

March 21st Annual General Meeting and Dinner.
Estimate_____ hours

May 8th Council Meeting.
Estimate_____hours

August 3rd Council Meeting.
Estimate_____hours

December 4th Council Meeting.
Estimate_____hours

Total_____ hours for 1990

****

Thanks for your co-operation

APPENDIX 6

ANALYSIS – SCHOOL GOVERNANCE

at macro and meso levels

CASE RECORDS (n = 9)

Case Records of observation: common format for each macro and meso level setting – ie. overview; milestones; references; peculiar abbreviations for organisations; personalities; significant specifics.

1. Preliminary assessment and understanding of contexts before fieldwork.
2. Consult and use Fieldwork Guidelines
2. Post-fieldwork update of each country and state setting
3. Final record as introduction to each setting's major factors

ITERATIONS AND REFLECTIONS

WAVE 1:

Preparation: Fieldwork Guidelines

Analysis 1 Concurrent with Fieldwork - Proformas, field notes, documentation. Collation of Forms: Contact,document and site summaries; site analysis, data accounting sheet, memos.

Fieldwork - Interviews in each setting. Evidence. Reflections

WAVE 2

Inquiry/observation phase- Ongoing analysis. First formulation of the specifics to be observed during observation phase.

References: Data Collection Inventory compiled. Interview record. Bibliography updated due to additional material.

WAVE 3

Analysis 2 Ongoing.

Major factors emergent.

2 categories of evidence:i.Theory (books, serial articles, reports, research findings; Legislation, regulations). ii. Practice, informants' comments, interview findings, site uniqueness.

Case Records written. Inferences

WAVE 4

Analysis 3 Final, conclusive. Refinement of major factors

Major factors in participatory governance formulated: Rationale for reform, traditions and local custom, change, time and timimg, management structures, powers, roles, attitudes, expertise and skills, knowledge and information, communication, responsiveness to clients, quality of education, equity, difficulties, future - intended and unintended consequences. Concepts concisely tabled. Linkages theory/practice. Write-up explanations for Tables/charts

WAVE 5

Governance - linkages Case records and Case studies. Display findings.

/.

APPENDIX 6

at micro level

CASE STUDIES (n = 3)

As in Case Records, Case Studies evolve before, during and after fieldwork (Participant Observation) Common format for 3 sites in Tasmanian setting - ie. overview, milestones, references, peculiar abbreviations, personalities, significant specifics.
Introduction - Tasmanian Case Record

KEY ISSUES

WAVE 1
Preparation: Participant Observation as a research method
Definition of the problem and scope of the participant observation phase.
4 stages
i. selection from major factors of key issues to be observed - change management, time/timing, decision making powers, roles, skills, knowledge/information, communication, policy outcomes
ii. guidelines for fieldwork forms designed to observe key concepts
iii. actual participant observation - concurrent analysis, adjustments and new speculations. Document analysis. Timelines. Time Record analysis.
iv. Summation of Participant Observation phase. Debrief
Composition and distribution of Time Record for each member of board/councils

WAVE 2
Concurrent analysis:
Iterative analysis after each meeting of board/councils
Components of board/councils procedures aggregated from fieldwork notes.
Relevant documents analysed, eg. agendae and minutes.
Correlate unobtrusive methods observations
Assess returned Time Records. Assess and write-up Rating Achievement
Decide on key informants to be interviewed.

WAVE 3
Interviews with key informants - analyse, distil essence of skills required and available, knowledge, roles. Seek who, whose, what, where, when, why, which, how.
Case Studies written. Display findings of Participant Observation phase

WAVE 4
Final analysis - recording format completed
Linkages theory/practice,to Key Issues overseas and national to guage effectiveness of school governance from local practice
Write-up explanations for Tables/charts

WAVE 5
Governance - linkages Case Records and Case Studies - include future intended and unintended consequences. Analyse outcomes in terms of educational quality

APPENDIX 6

ANALYSIS EEFFECTIVENESS CRITERIA:

- CREDIBILITY --------internal validity?
- DEPENDABILITY--------reliability?
- TRANSFERABILITY-----external validity?
- CONFIRMABILITY------objectivity

ANALYSIS TASKS RECORD

MACRO MESO LEVELS

	NZ	CAN.	USA	ENG/WALES	SCOT.	EIRE	NSW	VIC	TAS
CASE RECORDS 1									
CASE RECORDS 2									
CASE RECORDS 3									

	NZ	CAN.	USA	ENG/WALES	SCOT.	EIRE	NSW	VIC	TAS
KEY ISSUES theory									
KEY ISSUES practice									

	NZ	CAN.	USA	ENG/WALES	SCOT.	EIRE	NSW	VIC	TAS
WAVE 1 preparation									
WAVE 2 inquiry									
WAVE 3 analysis i.									
WAVE 4 analysis ii.									
WAVE 5 analysis iii									

APPENDIX 6

ANALYSIS TASKS RECORD

MICRO LEVEL

	Friends Board	Elizabeth Council	TCOH Council
CASE STUDIES 1			
2			
3			

KEY ISSUES			
WAVE 1 prepare			
WAVE 2 P/O phase			
WAVE 3 interview			
WAVE 4 analysis			
WAVE 5 linkages			

APPENDIX 7

America's National Educational Goals

Following the Education Summit convened in September 1989, agreement between the President and the governors of 50 states was reached on the six goals for American education to be attained by the year 2000. They are as follows:

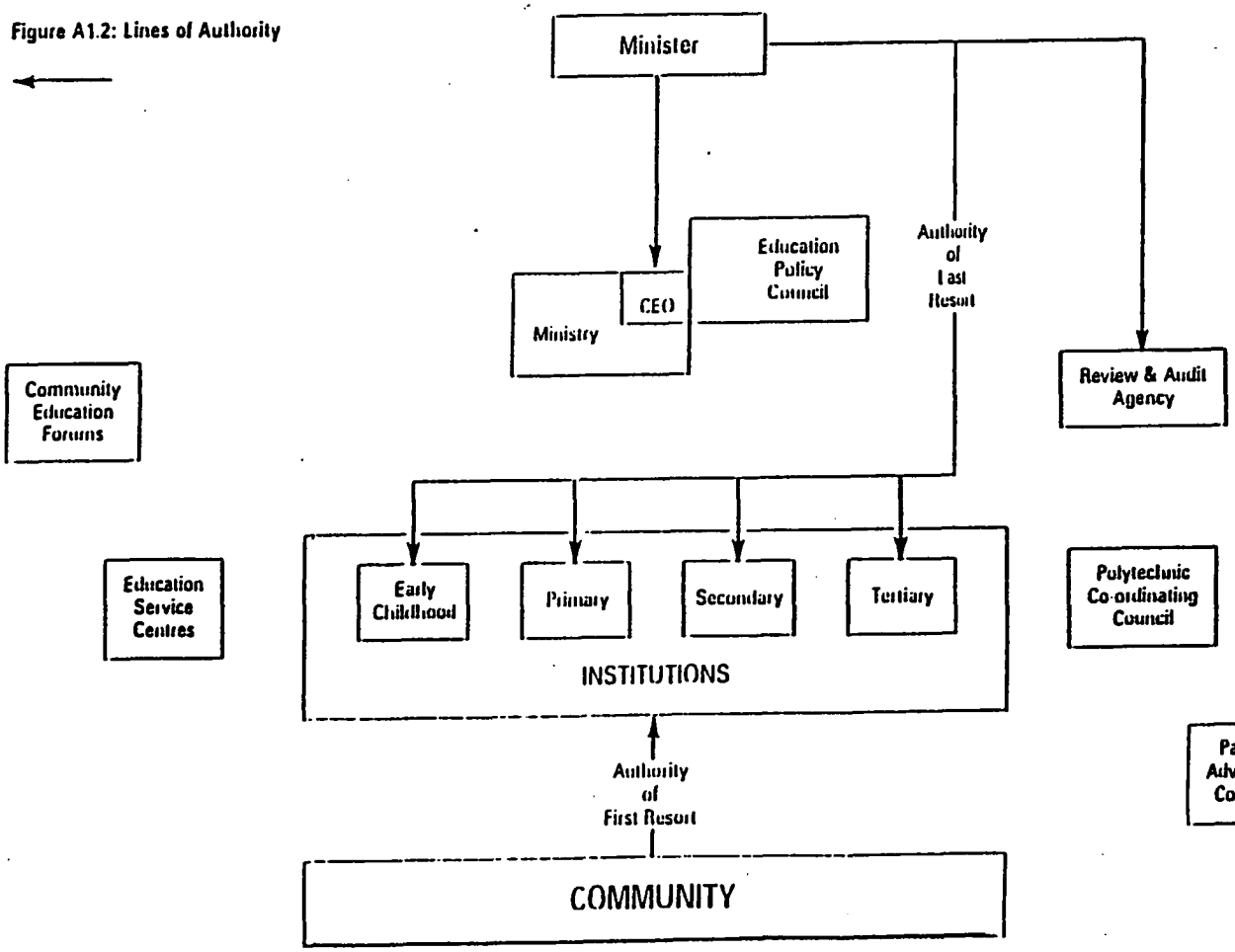
1. All children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90 per cent.
3. American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history and geography; and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.
4. U.S. students will be the first in the world in science and mathematics achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

APPENDIX 8

AUTHORITY OF FIRST RESORT - COMMUNITY

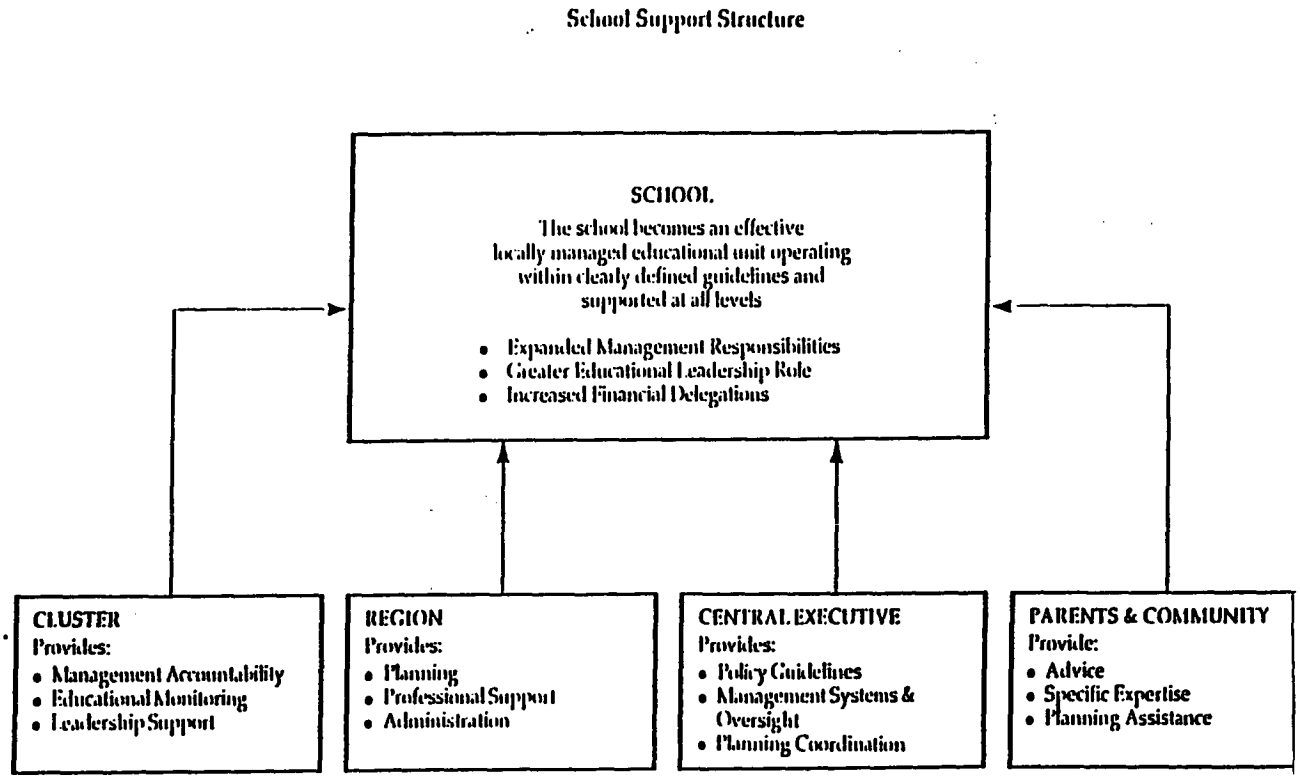
(Picot, 1988:105)

Figure A1.2: Lines of Authority



APPENDIX 9

SCHOOL SUPPORT STRUCTURE IN NEW SOUTH WALES SCOTT (1989A)



APPENDIX 10

Australian Bureau of Statistics

1991 NON-GOVERNMENT ENROLMENTS

The ABS figures for 1991 show that, despite the early stages of the recession, non-government school enrolments grew for the fourteenth year in a row. However, for the first time in 15 years the proportion of pupils attending non-government schools did not increase but remained at 27.89%. In 1991 (1990) there were 857911 (848310) pupils in non-government schools.

Table 1 shows both the proportion of students attending non-government schools and the actual numbers by State or Territory.

While the difference between States is quite marked the picture has been one of growth in all States but Victoria where the number of non-government school enrolments declined for the first time in at least 35 years.

In most of the other States the growth has been modest, but it was 4.8% in Tasmania and 3.7% in South Australia.

	Catholic Schools	Non-Catholic Schools	Non-Govt Schools	Non-Govt Enrolment
NSW	20.88%	7.16%	28.04%	290,896
VIC	22.40%	10.04%	32.44%	256,127
QLD	16.68%	8.34%	25.02%	132,791
SA	14.30%	10.02%	24.32%	60,019
WA	14.55%	7.94%	24.49%	70,985
TAS	14.64%	8.66%	23.30%	19,952
NT	13.27%	5.52%	18.79%	6,284
ACT	25.84%	7.94%	33.78%	20,857
AUST	19.45%	8.44%	27.89%	857,911

Proportion of students at Non-Government Schools (1991 by States) ABS

TABLE 1

The overall growth of 9601 in non-government school enrolments matches a growth of 23879 in the government sector. This is only the second year that the government sector has grown since 1978 and it is the largest growth since 1976.

APPENDIX 11
[Sample policy document]

ROSEBERY DISTRICT HIGH SCHOOL COUNCIL

34: POLICY STATEMENT: SPECIAL EDUCATION

20th July, 1983.

Definition: Special education is the education of children with specific learning difficulties or other special needs.

The school's policy on catering for children with learning difficulties or special needs is guided by the philosophy expressed in the COPE report. That is, wherever possible it is considered desirable to have mixed groupings of children so that they are able to have contact with as wide a range of people as they will meet in society as adults. The only exception to this mixed grouping would be children who are moderately or severely intellectually handicapped, as such children require resources which we are unable to provide. However, for the other categories of 'difference'

- specific learning difficulty
- mild intellectual handicap
- language disability
- speech impairment
- behaviour disturbance
- physical disability
- sensory disability

it is considered that there are 'benefits in catering for children with special needs in the normal classroom'. (COPE p.65).

These benefits apply equally to children with, and those without problems.

However, children with special needs, such as those listed above, may at times require a more specialised program than the normal classroom is able to provide. We place a very high priority on the need to provide the best possible education for such children, no less than for children who display no learning difficulties or other problems.

Accordingly, the school will...

1. Ensure that a teacher will be employed to undertake 'special education' within the school. Such a teacher will preferably be provided from outside the normal staffing quota, but if this is not possible will be provided from within the normal staffing quota.
2. Develop plans to deal with children with specific intellectual, physical, social, emotional, behavioural and speech/language related problems.
3. Consider in drawing up plans for special education provisions, all the variables such as age of child, nature of problem, type of program, type of program operating in child's own classroom.
4. Cater for the mobility of children with physical handicaps.
5. Involve school support staff where appropriate.
6. Concentrate special education resources in the main in the early childhood area, on the basis that prevention is better than cure.
7. Identify and cater for children under normal school age who are at risk in the areas of language, social and physical development.
8. Recognise that the classroom teacher is the person most responsible for children with special needs, and ensure that the special education teacher is used as a resource, providing all possible support to that teacher in dealing with children who have difficulties in surviving in the normal class group.

The successful operation of this policy hinges on the appointment of a highly suitable and satisfactory special education teacher. If no such person is available then the special education needs of children will be met by the normal classroom teachers with the assistance of senior staff.

Rosebery District High School

R. J. CHAPMAN
Chairman

APPENDIX 12

SAMPLE FIELDWORK NOTES (WRITE UP)

GOVERNING BODY: Case Study 3 **DATE:** 20/3/91 **DURATION OF MEETING:** 2 hrs. 5 mins

PRESENT- 15

5.10 pm Start

Agenda Item/Time	Proceedings	Category/Time taken
1, 2, 3 — 5.10 — 5.30	Apologies. Minutes of previous meeting Constitution. New TAFE Structure explained. Council membership.	Procedure 20 mins
4.1, 4.2 — 5.30 — 5.40	Courses proposed for L'Ton Campus. (Cookery; Restaurant; Travel + Tourism; Hosp. Training; Housekeeping)	Curriculum 10 mins.
4.3 — 5.40 — 5.47	Non Smoking Policy Next phase: College to have Smoking Room M. suggested seeking Tobacco Co sponsorship.	Resources/ Planning 7 mins
5. — 5.47 — 6 pm	Correspondence.	Procedure 13 mins
6 — 6pm — 6.20	Annual Financial Report (approved)	Finance 20 mins
7. — 6.20 — 6.40	Resident's report	Procedure 20 mins
8.1 — 6.40 — 6.50	Principal's report	Curriculum Welfare 5 mins (10) 5 mins
8.2. — 6.50 — 6.55	Residence Manager's report	Welfare 5 mins
8.3 — 6.55 — 7 pm	Student representation report	Welfare 5 mins.
8.4 — 7 pm — 7.10	Staff representative report. Entrepreneurial activities.	Finance 10 mins
9 — 7.10 — 7.15	Other business: G.F Workskill. M.M. Student's success in national comp.	Curriculum - 5 mins
7.15.	Complete Rating Achievement Form Annual Dinner.	

Categorisation/Time:
Procedure: 53 mins
Finance: 20 mins
Resources/Planning: 7 mins
Curriculum: 30 mins
Welfare: 15 mins

TOTAL TIME: 125 mins

APPENDIX 13

Press advertisments for community participants on Councils

CASE STUDY 1

ELIZABETH COLLEGE COUNCIL INC

Membership 1992-93

Applications are invited from members of the public

Elizabeth College is a senior secondary school with a total enrolment of 1613 students. It is largely self managing. The council plays an important role in policy formation and advice. Serving on the council for a two year term would give you a stimulating insight into the processes, joys and problems of current education.

For further information contact

The Acting Chairperson, Mrs Sheila Given 34 3004 (home)
or the Principal, Mr Bruce Poulson 35 6501

CASE STUDY 3

TASMANIAN COLLEGE OF HOSPITALITY

DRYSDALE HOUSE COLLEGE COUNCIL

COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES

Interested groups, community organisations and individuals are requested to nominate for two (2) positions on the Tasmanian College of Hospitality Council.
Meetings are held at least once per term and further information may be obtained by writing to:

THE PRINCIPAL
TASMANIAN COLLEGE OF HOSPITALITY
DRYSDALE HOUSE
59 COLLINS ST
HOBART 7000

Written nominations should be forwarded to the above address by Friday, February 27, 1987.

APPENDIX 14

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GOVERNING BODIES OF SCHOOLS AND HEADMASTERS

This document has been prepared in the light of past experience, as advice both to Governing Bodies and to Headmasters upon some aspects of their mutual relationships.

1. *The Governing Body should, if required, provide a Headmaster on appointment with a clear and precise statement of the conditions of his appointment. If his appointment is for a limited period of years, after which he may be re-appointed or continued in office, he should be provided on re-appointment or retention with a clear and precise statement that the same conditions still hold or with a new set of conditions.*
   It is advisable too that the Governing Body should set out clearly superannuation details and the policy of the school as to the Headmaster's retirement. It is urged that Superannuation Schemes for Headmasters should be so arranged that the Headmaster may retire, or be retired, at any time between the age of 60 and 65, without his superannuation being affected. This will necessarily mean that the Headmaster's superannuation will be a special charge on the school's superannuation payments.
2. *Understanding of the relative positions of the Governing Body and the Headmaster is essential. Usually the Governors are charged by the Act of Incorporation or other constituent document with the managment and superintendence of the affairs, concerns and property of the school and are required to act so as to promote the purposes for which the school is established. The whole responsibility for its conduct rests upon them. While retaining in their hands the control of financial and property matters, they delegate to the Headmaster their duties and powers as regards discipline, courses of study, selection and management of staff, and school activities generally. They should give him their confidence and allow him a wide freedom in the exercise of the powers entrusted to him; but they have the right and obligation to be consulted on any matter of policy affecting the welfare of the school; and, if a difference of view upon such a matter arises between them and the Headmaster and all efforts to resolve it fail, it is their view which must prevail.*
   Such differences will seldom occur, and, if they do, will be easily settled, if each party maintains the right attitude to the other. The relation should be one of complete trust, with unfettered freedom of discussion, with a full understanding on the Headmaster's part that the ultimate responsibility is that of the Governing Body, and with a generous recognition by the Governing Body that the Headmaster should be given full freedom in the carrying out of his duties. In the day-to-day running of the school, in matters of local organisation and discipline, and in the selection and management of staff, the Headmaster should not be under the constraint of constant observation and criticism. The Headmaster on his side must inspire the Governors with confidence that he can be relied upon to bring to their notice everything which they should know about the state of the school so that they may discharge their responsibilities.
   The relationship indeed calls for constant wisdom and discretion on all sides.
3. *Cases will occur in which a Governing Body or some of its members become to a greater or lesser degree dissatisfied with the Headmaster. The faults may be on either side or on both sides: the Governors may have been misinformed, or mistaken in judgment, or*

APPENDIX 14

impatient; the Headmaster may be really failing in one way or another to meet the requirements of his position. Unless wisely handled, such a position may become one of real danger. In all relations between the Governing Body and the Headmaster, the key position is held by the Chairman of the Governing Body, who must possess the confidence of both sides, do justice to both sides, and be ready to take the initiative where necessary in bringing any causes of friction or tension to fruitful discussion.

4. *Members of Governing Bodies, as individuals, may from time to time hear criticisms of the Headmaster from parents, masters, Old Boys, or boys in the school. They owe a primary loyalty to the Headmaster whom they (or their predecessors) have appointed. Fortified by this they will dismiss all unsubstantial and unsubstantiated criticism. More weighty criticism they will receive judicially and in such a way as to discourage mere gossip. If a member or members of a Governing Body hold or hear such criticisms of such a volume or seriousness as to call for attention, they should at once convey them to the Chairman. He should normally be the one to decide whether the members concerned should discuss the matter direct with the Headmaster and report to him again, or whether he should take the matter into his own hands.*
5. *It will be clear from the preceding paragraph that the proper channel of communication for members of the Governing Body is to their Chairman and from him to the Headmaster. It is most inadvisable that they should formally take up matters about which they are concerned direct with masters, or, except with the approval of the Chairman, with the Headmaster. But naturally they will often informally discuss matters in which they are personally interested with the Headmaster.*
6. *In most cases the Chairman, after trying carefully to assess the value of the evidence, should then discuss it informally with the Headmaster, after which he should tell the Headmaster whether he thinks it right to report the matter formally to the Governing Body or not.*
7. *If and when the matter is reported to the Governing Body, it will then consider what action should be taken, in particular whether and how further enquiry should be made, whether as a result the Chairman should be asked to give friendly advice, or whether the situation is of such gravity that an official warning should be given to the Headmaster by the Chairman, in which case the warning should be clearly stated in writing so that the Headmaster can be in no doubt about his position and can, if he so desires, discuss with the Governing Body in person the reasons which have led to the warning being given.*
8. *A Governing Body has an absolute right, within the terms of its constitution or scheme of Government, to request or enforce the resignation of a Headmaster if in its judgment the interests of the school demand it. It is to be remembered, however, that even when the instrument of Government gives the Governing Body the right to dismiss the Headmaster "without cause assigned", there may, in certain circumstances, remain a right to the Headmaster to appeal to the courts against his dismissal.*
9. *If the Governing Body has to consider the possibility of requiring the Headmaster to resign for particular reasons of dissatisfaction with him, the Headmaster should always be given the opportunity of appearing in person before the Governing Body before a decision is taken, in order that he may hear the case against him and be able to defend himself against it.*

APPENDIX 14

10. Except when the reason for dismissal is such as to require that it be immediate, it is desirable that as long notice as possible be given. A Headmaster who resigns or whose appointment is terminated is likely to have difficulty in finding another post of similar stipend and responsibility. On the other hand delay may be embarrassing on both sides. The date of departure should be settled by mutual agreement.

11. When the decision is to be made, the Headmaster should be asked whether he is satisfied that the proper procedure has been followed and that his interests have been fairly considered. It might be wise for the Chairman of the Governing Body and the Headmaster first to consult the Chairman of the Headmasters' Conference: This would allow them to draw on the experience which the Headmasters' Conference has gained of similar problems in other schools over many years; and perhaps the Chairman of the State Branch of the Headmasters' Conference or another experienced Headmaster could be deputed to wait on the Chairman of the Governing Body and some of his colleagues, if this should seem likely to be helpful. In this it must be understood that there will be no suggestion that the Governing Body should be deprived of its freedom or that some bargain is to be made. But it is important that both parties be satisfied that the wisest and the most just consideration has been observed.

August, 1967.

APPENDIX 15

ACROSS-SETTING MATRIX OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNANCE
Samples from data collected during macro and meso level inquiry

Country/ State	Legislation	Central Authority Directives	Major Reports issued	Change monitors	Extant goverance powers	Envisaged participation
United States	Federal Acts 1964, 1965,1972,1981 State Acts	Federal input negligible, States responsible	Coleman *et al.*,1966 A Nation At Risk 1983	Research studies,eg. Hallinger & Murphy ('89)	District School Boards Advisory Boards	Democracy is an inherently good thing
Scotland	Local Govt,Act '73 Ed,(Scot) Acts '80, 1981,Schools Board (Scot,) 1988	Scottish Office Schools Board Manual 1989	Wheatley 1969 Munn '77	Scottish School Council Project'80	Ensure statutory duties of Ed. Auth, carried out	Approval, advisory supportive encourage
Ireland (Eire)	Education Acts '19 1920,Voc.Ed,Act'30	Green Paper 1985	[n/a]	1950 Council of Education	some Boards in place	prospects for involvement
England/Wales	Ed. Acts 1944,1980 1986, ERA88	Better Schools 1985, DES	Taylor 1977 LMS '88	HMI Governors' Annual Rep.	funding,can opt out, appoint staff	school-site governors accountable
Canada (British Columbia)	Local Election Reform Act '77 BC School Act '89	'Enabling Learners' 1989	Prov. Sch. Report '85 Sullivan Royal C. 1988	CEA '79 Task Force EAC 1980 Assess. of learn.	PACs District School Boards	supportive, advisory, D.Boards, Advisory Councils
New Zealand	Local Govt. Act 1974, Education Act 1989	Tomorrow's School 1988	OECD '83 Scott '86 Picot '88	Community Forums Lange '88 Lough '90	adapt Nat. Curric., funding, appoint staff	school-site management accountable Trustees
Victoria	School Councils Act 1975 Teaching Service Act 1984	Ministerial Papers 1-6 1985 Stat. Rules 1989	Hunt-Lacy Review '79 PA Rep.'81 Shears '84 Struc.T.'86	S.Council Unit. Annual Report	appoint Pr. collaborate make decisions	school-site management, consultative Negotiation Councils
New South Wales	Public Ser. Act 1979,Ed. Act '80 Ed. & P. Inst. 1987. Ed.Reform Act 1990	Dept. Sch. Ed. Clusters Regions	Vyndham'57 Scott'89 Carrick'89	Ext.Coun. of Review Community Consult. Council	Guidelines 1990	promote positive image, accountable to Clus.Dir.
Tasmania	Ed. Act.1932	S.Self-M.'91, School Council Papers '90,'91	COPE '77 TEND '78 Sec. Ed.'87 Cresap'90	Edwards'83 Thurstans'83	advice guide approve support	maintain community interest